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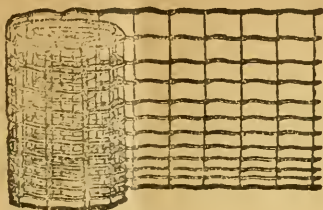
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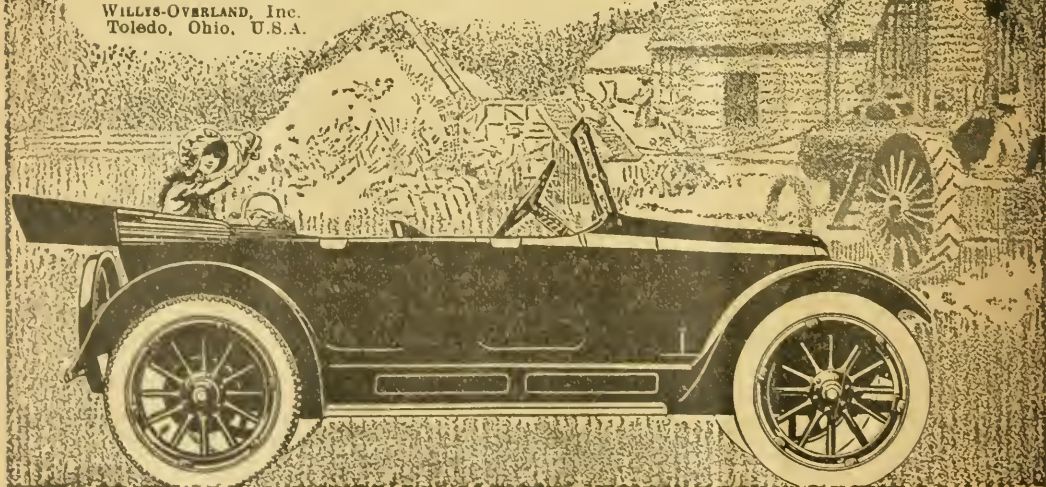
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TO MY READERS

DURING the next few months events of immense importance will be happening in Europe, and world settlements will be made. These I hope to deal with in the *Progress of the World* as I have dealt with the war during the last four years. I do not propose to give my readers a rehash of what they have read in the news columns of the papers, but to present these occurrences to them in a manner which will interest, and, at the same time, will give them information they will get nowhere else.

I hope to write on many of the dramatic incidents which have occurred in Europe and elsewhere during the last four war-saddened years. Many things of wondrous interest have happened concerning which little or nothing is known. These tales are yet to be told, but I must wait yet a little longer before I can tell them. Readers may be sure, though, that ere long they will appear in these pages.

As yet few people realise that we are about to witness the making of a new world. It is my confident hope that *STEAD'S* will, during the next few months, help its readers to follow the various efforts put forth to bring it into being.

Before the war Australia had become self-centred, parochial even. We cared little about what went on outside the Commonwealth, but we can never return to that condition again. Australia has to take her place among the world powers. She must obtain a greater share in the government of the Empire, and with such share goes responsibility. Formerly we were national entirely; we have now to learn to be international. A time of testing is ahead. If we are to come safely through it we must have knowledge, and *STEAD'S* is determined to help its readers to get that knowledge.

I have been much struck with the lack of information in Australia about New Zealand, and with the ignorance of one Australian State about another, and therefore intend to deal more fully with New Zealand, Federal and State affairs than I have hitherto done.

The price of paper remains exceedingly high, and there does not appear to be any hope of a reduction for some months, but at the first possible moment *STEAD'S* will revert to the old price of 6d., and as soon as paper supplies permit, the number of pages will be increased.



THE KING OF THE BELGIANS INSPECTS A TANK.



CHINESE LABOURERS IN FRANCE WATCHING A DRAGON FIGHT.



NOVEMBER 23, 1918.

The Making of Peace.

The assumption, made in our last number, that whatever the terms of the Armistice might be, the Germans would accept them, proved true, and on Monday, November 11th, the enemy delegates formally signed the lengthy document which virtually ended the war. Not twelve days have elapsed since the momentous news was flashed round the world, but already we seem to be forgetting that we were at war for almost four years and a-half. As I write the flags still fly from every pole in the city, many windows are still bedecked, but the people no longer show any particular signs of rejoicing. When we come to think of it, our methods of expressing our joy are extremely limited and meagre. A little shouting, a little rough horseplay, a little singing—which for so tuneful a people as ours was terribly feeble—and that was all. Later a bonfire or two laboriously built by some enthusiastic souls during Tuesday, and the celebrations were over. Our civic authorities failed utterly to rise to the occasion, and when I slipped into a great church on this day of international rejoicing I found it practically empty. The Federal Government, by or-

dering the closing of the public-houses, made certain that the proceedings were more or less orderly, and whether this was the cause or not, they certainly were of the briefest. But though there was no celebration of the signing of the Armistice which will linger in the memory, the date, November 11th, will be one we can never forget. On that day ended the great war. On that day began the new era which is to transform the world.

What Now?

The cover of this number shows an Australian soldier standing on the blood-drenched soil of Gallipoli, waiting the passing of the Allied Fleet whose searchlights are seen as they approach Hellas. As he muses o'er the events which have led up to this passage of the straits to achieve which he struggled so long, gloriously, but in vain, he asks himself, What now? What are they going to do with their victory? Is it going to be worth all the blood and the misery, the suffering and the loss? Are they really going to create a new world in which common sense and justice will rule instead of force, in which national ambition will be subordinated to the com-

mon good, in which Governments will strive not for the aggrandisement of their respective nations, but for the happiness of their people, or are they only going to patch up the old world again? That old world with its slogan: "If you want peace, prepare for war." That old world in which the balance of power was the fetish of diplomatists and statesmen. That old world in which the nations went armed to the teeth, and had no thought of settling disputes save by the sword. Well may our watcher pray as he waits for the mighty ships of war that men of vision may be sent to the Peace Conference, that ancient shibboleths may be swept away, and that those who would trammel the builders of a new order of things, would hamper them with greedy demands and selfish claims, may be utterly overthrown. Well may we thank God that the Peace Conference is determined to slough off the old ideas of international control and boldly insist that the objects for which the great nations entered the war shall be achieved by the creation of an international body which shall be powerful enough to force individual peoples to do its bidding. But the task is a difficult one, calling for statesmanship of the highest order, and can only be achieved by men who are transparently honest and quite obviously have the welfare of the whole world much more deeply at heart than the advancement of their own country or its aggrandisement at the expense of others.

Possible Seeds of Discord.

Already there are signs of a desire to revert to pre-war conditions, there is hesitation about the drastic reduction of armies and navies, there is anger over the possibility of an equitable judgment concerning the Colonies, not favouring the victors. Mr. Hughes has struck a discordant note on the boycott question. The French appear to expect Alsace-Lorraine to become theirs without first consulting the population of the provinces, and so on and so forth. It will require consummate statesmanship to reconcile differences and evolve such a condition of things as President Wilson and others have dreamed of. The next few months will be the most momentous in the world's history. Decisions made then will make or mar Europe, will settle the fate of the world. It is quite possible that seeds of discord will be sown at this Peace Conference as they were sown at the Conferences of Vienna and Berlin, seeds from which will spring plants of strife,

whose bitter fruit will be gathered by our grand-children on blood-stained fields of battle. Strong men are needed with imagination and long sight, men who at the Conference table will not hesitate to cut away from old tradition and blaze a new trail for the nations to follow.

To Minimise Danger of War.

President Wilson's first condition—that there are to be no secret treaties or understandings will go a long way to safeguard the peace of the world, but there must be some authority to see that such treaties, if made, are abrogated and the parties thereto are properly punished. Open discussion at the Peace table would give the peoples of the world a lesson in international arrangements they much need, and by which they would be much benefited. The abolition of secret treaties means that never again can peoples be plunged into war with their eyes shut. They would have been asked to approve the treaties which laid obligations on them instead of suddenly waking up, at war, to the fact that their rulers had made arrangements which bound them to support this Power or that, whether they would or no. Open diplomacy makes for peace, just as the old secret diplomacy made for war. The reduction of armies and navies also makes for peace, just as the piling up of armaments made for war. The doing away of the right of erecting hostile tariffs and engaging in economic warfare tends to bring peace between nations, just as boycotts and discriminating tariffs create that friction which makes war likely. If, then, the nations of the world loyally accept President Wilson's fourteen Articles, there is good prospect of the conclusion of a peace which will safeguard the world from further war. That is why their unanimous adoption by the Allies in Conference at Versailles, after they had been accepted *in toto* by the Germans, Austrians, Turks and Bulgars is, to my mind, a far greater event than the actual signing of the Armistice. We now have a real chance of making a world in which wars shall be no more. A world in which

The warrior's name would be a name
abhorred,

And every nation that should lift again
Its hand against a brother, on its forehead
Would wear for evermore the curse of
Cain.

The Armistice Terms.

After all we had been told as to the severity of the Armistice terms, these, when

they finally were made public, though hard, were nothing like as drastic as we had been led to believe they would be. The evacuation of France, Belgium, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine was certain, and the occupation by the Allies of the Prussian and Bavarian provinces west of the Rhine was more or less expected. There was, however, no clause demanding the demobilisation of the German armies, as was the case in the Armistice conditions imposed on Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria. The guns which had to be surrendered seemed comparatively few—5000 (half big guns, half field pieces)—for the enemy claimed to have taken that many from the Italians and reported that they took more than a thousand in the drive to Amiens, and another thousand in the drive to the Marne. The British commanders reported the capture of over a thousand heavy guns during the fighting in Picardy. 25,000 machine guns can be but a fraction of the total number possessed by the German armies, which relied so greatly on these weapons. We were assured that the enemy had great quantities of aeroplanes, but only 1700 had to be given up. The surrender of the submarines and the disarmament of the battleships and cruisers must have been a very hard condition to agree to, but actually German security was not in the least affected by the loss of the navy. Only the enemy power to inflict loss on the merchant marine was ended. The terms do not seem to cripple the German Army, but the acceptance of any terms at all demonstrated that the enemy were determined to quit fighting, and had no intention of putting up any further resistance. They had agreed to the fourteen articles, and knowing the Allies bound by these also, were fully aware that the terms of the Armistice mattered relatively little, as the fourteen articles governed the making of the final peace.

Is Germany Starving?

The Germans protested against the continuance of the blockade, which prevented them from getting food for their starving people, and objected to the confiscation of 5000 locomotives and 150,000 waggons which they declared necessary for the transport of troops and food throughout Germany. There is a curious reversal of statements now. Formerly the German authorities declared that they had enough food to carry them through, on meagre rations it is true, but we declared that they

were actually starving and looked to our starvation blockade to end the war. Now the Germans assert that they are on the verge of hunger collapse, and we insist that they have plenty of food to enable them to keep the wolf from the door! There is probably some truth in the German contention that the withdrawal of 150,000 waggons from their rolling stock seriously cripples transportation within the country, but they still have a large number of waggons left. The Great Western and North-Western Railways have between them 150,000 waggons, and the withdrawal of these, though it would badly inconvenience England, would not cripple her utterly. Germany has proportionately and actually far more miles of railway than Great Britain, and therefore many more locomotives and waggons. Presumably the Allies, whilst maintaining the blockade, would permit food to be imported into Germany; in fact, it is stated in the Armistice terms that the United States and the Allies would provision Germany as found necessary. Naturally they would not do it, as in the case of Belgium, for nothing; but would sell Germany grain if convinced that without it her people would starve. Quite possibly the British Government may purchase Australian wheat with the intention of selling it to the Germans.

German Rulers Disappear.

No sooner was the Armistice signed than the rulers of Germany began to topple from their thrones. First the Kaiser abdicated and departed to Holland. Then the King of Bavaria surrendered his sceptre. Grand Dukes and Dukes, Kings and Princes followed in quick succession until to-day, less than a fortnight after the ending of the war, it is doubtful if a single petty monarch reigns in Germany. I did not imagine it possible that all the German States would so quickly get rid of their hereditary rulers, and I am rather sceptical about some of the republics which are said to have been set up. The democratic monarchy of Bavaria seems to me to be a much more popular form of Government amongst Germans than a republic would be, but it is obvious enough that it would tend greatly to the solidarity of the nation if the many little principalities, with their separate Governments, were swept away altogether and their people united together to form a single State in a general Germanic confederation. Prince Max has been named regent, but for whom

is not stated. Von Hindenburg—reported dead early this year—is still at the head of the army, and apparently still popular. The Crown Prince—after having been killed for perhaps the fifteenth time—also turned up in Holland. The presence of the Emperor and his son just across the border, the fact that von Hindenburg is still Commander-in-chief, and the carrying out of a revolution without bloodshed, have caused many people, amongst them Lord Robert Cecil, to doubt the genuineness of the German democratisation. Many clamour for the surrender of the Kaiser, his trial and condemnation. Actually, of course, it was not one of the Allied conditions that the Kaiser should be deposed, or should abdicate. All that concerned President Wilson was that the Reichstag should, in very truth, obtain control of the Government of the country. That he was satisfied on that point was evidenced by his transmittance of the German request for an Armistice to the Allied Governments. The rest is the Germans' affair, not ours.

The Usual Fate of Ex-Monarchs.

Undoubtedly the presence of the Kaiser in Holland, or, indeed, anywhere, is bound to lead to endless trouble in Germany. Every plot against the Government centres round the dethroned monarch, whether he desires it to or not. It was for this reason that Mary Queen of Scots and Charles I. lost their heads, that ex-Tsar Nicholas was shot, and that ex-kings innumerable have been killed during the centuries. It is possible that the Kaiser will escape the usual fate, but that is a matter for his former subjects to decide; we will have nothing whatever to do with it. There is not the slightest chance of William II. being brought before an Allied tribunal. He may conceivably have to answer for his deeds before one set up by the German people, but never before one composed of those who have been fighting his country. Because the German nation is so eminently sane, and the individuals who compose it are so methodical, well educated and sensible, it is possible that though he has vacated the throne, the Kaiser may not come to a violent end, but may spend his declining years in peaceful seclusion. The Emperor Karl of Austria is not likely to escape, however, for in the turbulent times ahead of Austria there must be plot and counter plot, and an ex-emperor, who is also an ex-king, cannot fail to be immeshed in one or other.

A Bloodless Revolution.

All over Germany soldiers' councils came into being, and assumed control of affairs. To distinguish these bodies they are usually called Soviets, the Russian word for councils. A Social Democrat, Herr Ebert, became Chancellor, and filled all the Ministerial offices with fellow-Socialists. Everywhere, however, the Ministers of the old regime appear to have remained as advisers to the new men. What rioting has occurred appears to have been due to the extreme Socialists and to the starving people. Later the returning soldiers gave trouble. There was very little bloodshed. Almost overnight Imperial autocratic Germany became a democratically governed land with a Socialist at the head of affairs. In France rivers of blood flowed when the change was made. In Russia the coming of republican government was marked by bloodshed, and the overturn of established order everywhere, and the country is still seething with unrest and discontent. It is true that the German masses are well educated, and are accustomed to think for themselves, whereas the French workers at the time of the Revolution were illiterate, and sought only to throw off the incubus which had so long oppressed them and ground them in the dust, and the Russians of to-day are much as the French were a hundred years ago. But for all that there is considerable suspicion concerning the genuineness of the changes we have witnessed follow one another with such kaleidoscopic rapidity. One reason why events in Germany are being watched so anxiously by statesmen the world over is because of the possibility of Bolshevism getting a strong foothold in the country. The Allied Governments certainly do not want a Bolshevik-ruled Germany to deal with. They would rather have the Kaiser back again, shorn of his absolute powers, for if Peace is to be made it must be concluded with some responsible Government.

In the Melting Pot.

The present position is that Herr Ebert is actually in control, but has to face strong opposition from Dr. Karl Liebknecht, whose praises have been so often sung in this country. Leader of the extremists, Liebknecht, after being reported shot several times during the early days of the war, was finally imprisoned by the German Government. It seems probable that he will be

again incarcerated, this time by the Democratic Socialists, who are seeking to establish a stable Government which Liebknecht is endeavouring to upset. Ebert has announced that the *Reichstag* has ceased to exist, and that he will carry on the Government until a new Assembly can be elected. The *Reichstag*, however, refuses to cease to exist, and from our point of view it is right, as it is, after all, a democratically elected Assembly, and represents the people of Germany, whereas Ebert represents only one section of them. If he rules alone he becomes even more autocratic than the Kaiser himself. However, there is little use speculating what will happen, as events will move rapidly during the next few weeks. It is certainly unlikely that Ebert will long remain in power, but it is difficult to say who will follow him. Much will depend upon the returning soldiers, and it would not be surprising if von Mackensen might gravely influence the position. He was supposed to have disarmed his soldiers, but apparently the brilliant old campaigner has led his forces, fully armed, out of Roumania, through Hungary and hostile Bohemia, back to Germany. Disorganised as it is, the army in Germany is still the greatest factor, and, like Cromwell's, it may yet take matters into its own hands and settle the future government of the country.

Toppling Thrones.

The upheaval in Germany was quickly followed by efforts in other countries to change existing Governments, but neither in Switzerland nor in Holland, where at first these efforts seemed likely to succeed, did the Socialists manage to overturn the President of the Swiss Republic or the Dutch Queen. The disturbances in both countries were promptly attributed to the German militarists, although it is difficult to see what these could gain by the substitution of Socialist Governments for those which at present exist. It is conceivable that the German Socialists were to some extent responsible, although it is more probable that the advanced Socialists of Holland, seeing the success which had attended the efforts of their international brethren in Germany, were anxious to seize the psychological moment to secure the reins of power. It is stated that Queen Wilhelmina was on the eve of signing her abdication when troops from the country arrived at The Hague and quelled the

disturbance, forcing the garrison at the Dutch capital to lay down its arms. The truth of the Shakespearian saying, "Un easy lies the head that wears a crown," has never been so demonstrated as during the last few days. In Sweden, in Norway, in Holland, in Spain, monarchs must have feared for their thrones, but for the moment the danger is passed. In England there was a great demonstration in favour of King George, but the monarch of a victorious nation need not have the fear which descends upon him who is set over a country which had been defeated. Apparently the King of Roumania, though a Hohenzollern, still rules over the land, and the King of Greece is yet on the throne. How long Roumania and Greece will be satisfied with a monarchical form of Government remains to be seen. Already Bulgaria has declared a republic, and it is almost certain that if Serbia is augmented by the addition of Bosnia, Herzegovina, Croatia and Slavonia, the united Jugo-Slavs will insist on setting a President over them rather than submit to the sway of the present Serbian King. Greece, before now, has tried a republic and rejected that system of government in favour of a limited monarchy, but the recent experience the Greeks have had of the real power a king can exert might induce them to revert once more to the republican system.

Will Greece Get Cyprus?

When efforts were made to induce the Greeks to throw in their lot with the Allies and participate in the attempt to force the Dardanelles, Great Britain recognised the Grecian claim to Cyprus, and, together with France, was willing to permit the Hellenic Government to annex considerable portions of Asia Minor, with adjacent islands. At that time Italy was not fighting the Central Powers, and was therefore not consulted. Greece did not come in and Italy did. Nevertheless, at the eleventh hour the Greeks ranged themselves by the side of the Allies. It will be a nice point to decide whether the Greek claims to Cyprus, recognised as just in 1914, should now be admitted. Another interesting question is whether the Greek or Italian claims to the Aegean coast of Asia Minor are to be recognised at the Peace Conference. There are far more Greeks living in this district than there are Italians, and there is little doubt that, if the Turks are to be deprived of the Aegean shore, for ethnical reasons at any rate, it should

go to the Greeks rather than to the Italians. Both Greece and Italy have claimed the southern part of Albania, but apparently the matter has been settled, the Italians being given Avlona and the immediate Hinterland, and the Greeks being allowed to annex the Epirus. The Albanians themselves do not appear to have been much consulted in the matter. As the Serbians are anxious to secure an outlet on the Adriatic, they will probably annex northern Albania in order to obtain the port of Durazzo.

The Baltic Provinces.

Already we learn that Roumanian troops have crossed the Carpathians and are engaged in occupying Transylvania. Beyond a brief message, however, we know nothing of the success of this operation, and are, indeed, in the dark as to whether the Hungarians are opposing it or not. Apparently the Roumanians followed immediately after von Mackensen's army, which withdrew through Transylvania. The Poles, now assured by the Allies of independence, do not yet seem to have agreed upon the form of government they desire, but evidently some sort of army has been got together, for reports state that it has invaded Prussian Poland, and has endeavoured to occupy the fortress of Posen. The Polish troops, however, encountered strong opposition, and have apparently retired, although cables are not clear on this point. Further north there is a movement to unite all the Baltic Provinces in a Baltic federation. Courland, months ago, invited the Kaiser to become its Grand Duke, and that district has apparently been actually incorporated in Prussia. The German residents are in a minority even in Courland, but they are easily the most influential people there, having the trade of the country in their hands. It would not be altogether surprising if a Baltic confederation came into existence. An alliance with Finland and Sweden would probably follow, but we may be quite sure that the leaning of the southern States of the confederation, at any rate, would be towards Germany rather than towards Poland, Russia, or Sweden.

Schleswig to Decide Its Fate.

The German Government has apparently sanctioned the taking of a referendum in Schleswig on the question as to whether it should be transferred from Prussia to

Denmark. A great deal has been said in the press about the right of the Schleswigers to have made this decision long ago. This right was reserved not to the people of the whole of the two provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, but only to the people residing in North Schleswig. The treaty which provided for this is known as the Treaty of Prague, which was concluded between Prussia and Austria in 1866. By Article 3 of this treaty Austria transferred all her rights in Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia, but the right of the people in North Schleswig to be again united to Denmark, was recognised, "should they express a desire to do so, by a vote freely given." In 1878, however, when the famous Triple Alliance came into existence, the two parties to the Prague Treaty, namely, Austria and Prussia, mutually agreed that this particular clause should lapse. If a referendum of the whole of Schleswig were taken it is practically certain that there would be a large majority for remaining German. If, however, the referendum is taken in the northern part only, the voting would go strongly in favour of re-union with Denmark. Of the 150,000 people dwelling north of a line drawn from Flensburg to the North Sea, it is estimated that at least 130,000 are Danish in sympathy if not actually by descent. We may take it for granted, therefore, that if a referendum is confined to this portion of Schleswig, Germany will lose the district. As the small number of inhabitants suggests, the area is small. Many people seem to imagine that if the Schleswigers vote for incorporation in Denmark the control of the famous Kiel Canal would pass altogether from German hands. As a matter of fact, however, this canal was built through the territory of the former province of Holstein, and no suggestion has ever been made that the people of Holstein should take a referendum as to whether or not they should be united with the Danes. The loss of North Schleswig, from a strategic point of view, would not make a great deal of difference to Germany.

The Future of Alsace-Lorraine.

It is by no means improbable that the German Government is encouraging the taking of a referendum in North Schleswig in order to strengthen its hands when it demands the taking of a referendum in Alsace and Lorraine as to the fate of those provinces. Herr Ebert has assured the Soviets which have been set up in Stras-

burg and other towns in the debatable provinces that the French occupation does not mean that the former Crown land is to revert to France. Clearly the Germans are going to press strongly for self-determination in this case. President Wilson's article dealing with the matter states that the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871, in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, should be righted in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interests of all. This clause does not preclude the Allies from stating that the only way for righting that wrong is to hand the provinces back to France. On the other hand the right of self-determination has been one of the things for which the Allies have fought, and it may be difficult for them to absolutely refuse to consider the wishes of the inhabitants of Alsace and Lorraine in arriving at a decision as to what is to happen to the provinces. As has been often pointed out in these columns, a referendum in Alsace-Lorraine would probably result in the defeat of the proposal that they should revert to France. Of the total population of 1,874,000, no fewer than 1,634,000 are German speaking, and only 204,000 speak French. Immediately after the annexation the provinces elected fifteen members to the *Reichstag*, all of whom formally protested against the annexation. As time went on and a new generation grew up, the French influence declined, and in the *Reichstag* last elected the Anti-German delegates from Alsace-Lorraine numbered only three out of the fifteen sent. As these members were elected on a liberal franchise, they reflect pretty well the feeling of the people. But although the demand for retrocession to France has become feebler and feebler during the forty odd years of German occupation, the party demanding autonomous government has steadily increased in power. This being so, if a free and uninfluenced referendum were taken it is almost certain that there would be a majority in favour of the creation of an independent State out of the two provinces. If that possibility were not allowed, then a straight-out referendum on the question of belonging to France or Germany would probably be answered in favour of continuance in the German Federation.

What is Happening in Russia?

The German troops are apparently being withdrawn from Finland, and the Russians have seized the opportunity of again

attacking the Finns. It may become the duty of the Allies to prevent Russian aggression in Finland in order that the Finns may have the opportunity of freely setting up whatever form of government they desire without outside interference. A cable report this morning states that the Ukrainian Government has been overthrown by General Delikan's anti-Bolshevik troops. This is somewhat surprising, because the Ukrainian Government itself is anti-Bolshevik. If it has been overthrown it is evidently by some other faction, probably by the Anti-Germans, but if the Anti-Bolsheviks are fighting amongst themselves the opportunity of the Bolsheviks will surely come, and therefore the present rejoicing at the change of Government in Ukraina is distinctly premature. We have the most meagre information as to what is going on all over Russia, the only thing of which we can be quite certain is that millions of Russians must inevitably starve to death this winter. Mr. Hoover is hastening to Europe to see what can be done to mitigate the famine in Northern Russia, but it is difficult to see what can be done beyond possibly victualling Petrograd and other large towns. The poverty of communications, the chaos on the railways, the lack of rolling-stock, make it practically impossible for supplies to be got far into the country. Clashed in the icy grasp of winter, lacking fuel, and foodless, terrible must be the fate of entire communities dwelling in the northern part of what was once the great Russian Empire.

The Germans Hand Over Their Fleet.

According to the papers the Germans have surrendered six battle-cruisers and ten dreadnoughts, nine of the latter being over 24,000 tons. If this be so, then it is quite clear that the Germans were correct in their account of the losses suffered at the Jutland battle. They stated that they lost only one battle-cruiser, and no dreadnoughts at all. The British Admiralty officially stated that the German losses included two battle-cruisers and two dreadnoughts of the *Kaiser* class. When the war began the Germans had four battle-cruisers afloat and two nearing completion. They had also a small battle-cruiser building for Greece, and since the war began are said to have built two more battle-cruisers. Including the Greek ship, that makes a total of nine battle-cruisers altogether. One of these is the *Goeben*, which is at Constantinople. Another is the *Lutzow*, which the

Germanus admit was sunk in the Jutland battle. Another is the *Von der Tann*, which has been reported sunk on many occasions. Including this vessel, however, the total number of battle-cruisers the Germans have left cannot be more than six, without the small Greek ship. As six have been handed over it is quite obvious that the *Derfflinger*, *Hindenburg* and *Seydlitz* were, after all, not sunk in the Jutland battle. When the war broke out the Germans had only nine dreadnoughts over 24,000 tons, amongst these being included all the *Kaiser* class. Apparently all nine have been handed over to the Allies, and therefore we must assume that two dreadnoughts of the *Kaiser* class were not sunk, as claimed by the British Admiralty, in the Jutland battle, but that the ships which went down were of a smaller class, as stated by the Germans. The Germans elected to hand over their surface craft to the British for internment in Allied ports instead of availing themselves of the option of interning them in neutral ports, where they were to remain under Allied control, as stipulated in Clause 23 of the Armistice. It was feared at one time that owing to the mutinous state of the German Fleet it would not be possible to secure the handing over of the ships designated in the time stipulated, and in order to meet this possibility the Allies reserved the right to occupy Heligoland as an advance base to enable them to enforce the terms of the Armistice. All the ships, however, left German ports within the seven days allowed, and have now been surrendered to the Allies. Consequently Heligoland will not be occupied.

The Question of Heligoland.

Reference to Heligoland usually calls forth the remark that England should never have parted with the island. Those who make this assertion fail to remember that Lord Salisbury, in handing it over to the Germans received compensation so ample that Bismarck himself, who had fallen a few months before the transfer was made, denounced the arrangement, as it involved the final abandonment of the German hope of building a great East African Empire. At that time the island was slowly but steadily disappearing, and the time did not seem far distant when it would vanish altogether beneath the waves. In order to save it the Germans almost enclosed it in cement walls, thus preventing the encroachment of the sea. Heligoland

belonged to Denmark, and was acquired by Great Britain during the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark being at that time an unwilling ally of France. So, too, was Holland, a circumstance which greatly benefited the British Empire, as her colonies were taken by our fleet. Heligoland was in the possession of Great Britain from 1807 to 1890, but the national tongue of the people remained German all the time. Even had Great Britain retained the island it is practically certain that at the outbreak of war it would have been seized by the Germans, if, indeed, any of it had been left above the surface of the water.

The Peace Conference.

Already there is considerable discussion as to who are to be the Peace Delegates of the Allies. The French Delegation is expected to consist of the veteran Premier Clemenceau, the former Premier Briand, at one time a Socialist, but later leader of the more radical group and head of the Government during the war, M. Bourgeois, France's senior delegate to the two Peace Conferences at The Hague, and M. Tardieu, still a young man, but already marked out as one of the greatest of living Frenchmen. He has filled the difficult position of French Commissioner in the United States with marked success. The British delegation is certain to include Mr. Lloyd George and Mr. Balfour, and probably Lord Reading, who has played a great part in international affairs since the war began. The fourth member may well be Sir Robert Borden, as he is the most likely man to be selected by the Dominions to represent them. General Botha might be a better delegate, but for obvious reasons he will not be chosen. No forecast has been made of the probable composition of the German delegation, and much depends upon the position in Germany when the appointments are made. If the Socialists do not definitely obtain the upper hand, Prince von Bülow will probably be one, and Erzberger another. As Austria is now split into fragments, one delegation can no longer represent that country. Will Hungary, Bohemia, Poland, German Austria and the rest all send special delegations, or will they have to be contented with one representative each? The Prime Minister of Italy and Baron Sonnino, the Foreign Minister, will certainly be in the Italian delegation. How Russia is to be represented, if at all, is a matter of pure conjecture. One of the first duties of the

Conference will be to decide what delegates may sit.

The American Delegates.

Perhaps the greatest interest is being shown concerning the composition of the American delegation. The representatives of the United States, the country which set out the fourteen articles on which Peace is to be made, will naturally have immense influence at the Conference. President Wilson himself has signified his intention of being present at the discussions, and if he goes he would, of course, be the first delegate. Elihu Root, a great international lawyer, and at one time American Secretary of State, is spoken of as likely to be the second. The suggestion that Mr. Hughes, who was a candidate for the Presidency against Dr. Wilson, should be a representative, gives a good idea of the manner in which party differences are being sunk in the United States. Whether he is an official representative or not, one of the most influential Americans at Paris will be Colonel House, the President's confidential adviser. Those who know him speak of this man as easily the greatest international statesman the war has produced. He has travelled throughout all the belligerent countries seeking information whilst the war was raging, and is said to have collected data which will be invaluable when Peace is being made. At the great Congress of Vienna, the only Peace Conference to which the coming one can be likened, Lord Castlereagh, Prime Minister of England, represented Great Britain at first, and when domestic affairs called him home, the Duke of Wellington took his place. Russia was represented by the Tsar himself. Von Hardenberg and von Humboldt were the Prussian delegates. Astute Metternich represented Austria, and "that fox," Talleyrand, the French. So well did he do it, indeed, that ere long defeated France became the dominant Power at the Conference, and had Napoleon's flight from Elba not broken up the gathering, France would have come handsomely out of the business. Before the Peace Conference actually meets much will have to be arranged between the Allies. So much, indeed, that it is unlikely that Peace will be directly discussed with the German and other delegates until early next year, though the internal situation in Germany and Austria demands the earliest possible conclusion of Peace. Until Peace is made nothing can be done in Russia or in the

Balkans, but there are so many momentous matters to settle that the Peace deliberations must necessarily be lengthy.

The Price in Blood.

The total British casualties during the war have now been published, and are approximately what they were estimated to be by various authorities, who compiled their totals from the various lists published at different times. The total number killed is 758,704, the number wounded is 2,032,122, and the prisoners total 360,045. The estimated total losses of the Germans vary considerably, but according to *Vorwarts*, 1,580,000 have been killed, 4,000,000 wounded, 490,000 taken prisoner, and the fate of 260,000 is unknown. This makes 6,330,000 in all, as compared with the British loss of 3,490,991. The estimated losses of the French up to July of this year was 1,375,000 killed. The proportion between killed and wounded is pretty much the same in all the armies, excepting the Russian, and we may therefore assume that if the French dead actually reached this huge total, the wounded must number almost 4,000,000. In addition the French lost over half a million prisoners, which would bring the total casualties up to just under 6,000,000. No official figures, though, have yet been given. It is everywhere declared that the Russian losses have been greater than those of any other belligerent. If, therefore, we take only England, France, Germany, and Russia, a minimum estimate places the casualties at over 20,000,000. To these have to be added the Italian, Belgian, Serbian, Roumanian, Portuguese, Austro-Hungarian, Turkish and Bulgarian casualties. It would be safe to put these down at at least 6,000,000. Altogether the toll of the war is probably at least 30,000,000 in killed and wounded, whilst the losses from sickness must also have been great. The killed must exceed 6,000,000 men, perhaps, more than the total population of the Commonwealth and New Zealand combined.

The Censorship.

It is amazing that there are still large numbers of people in Australia who scarcely realise that for four years the Press of the country has been under a most severe and rigorous censorship, that every paper has had to carry out instructions issued by the censor with regard to the withholding of news, and that many of the journals published in the Common-

wealth have been obliged to submit every line to the censor before publication. The Press has taken this rigid supervision in very good part, realising that in time of war it was necessary to withhold all information that could by any stretch of imagination convey information to the enemy, and has remained silent even when the censorship appeared to go far further than there seemed to be any necessity for. Now that the struggle is over, however, the papers are beginning to demand that this interference with their liberty shall no longer be permitted. I cannot do better than quote from an article in the *Melbourne Age* on the subject. It says:—

Throughout the war the community has placidly endured an amount of interference at the hands of Government, the suggestion of which in times of peace would have aroused flaming indignation. While there have been complaints as to the way in which the powers under the War Precautions Act have been administered, the people in general have patiently withstood the exercise of those powers out of a desire to strengthen the Government in checkmating enemy influences. They accepted the limitations placed upon their liberty to prevent the loss of liberty itself. Now that the danger has passed the spirit of all free men is being reasserted, and its expression will soon be forceful enough to overthrow those who cleave to an authority that puts it in defiance. Powers once conferred are reluctantly surrendered. That fact is common experience, both of human nature and of public life. The public, therefore, needs to keep jealous watch upon the celerity, or the lack of it, with which the Federal Government removes the tyrannical fetters that war has placed upon the freedom of the Press and of public speech. . . . Restraints upon knowledge and the stifling of free opinions belong to the ignorance and subjection of the Middle Ages. The British censorship that Mr Asquith is so anxious to remove has not been as stringent as that maintained in Australia, even though England was in the vortex of the war and Australia 12,000 miles away. Discussions in the Press and on the platform have been conducted in the United Kingdom with much more freedom, and there has not been the same political surveillance. Information circulated freely in England has been withheld frequently in Australia, as if it were easier for Germany to obtain knowledge of the Empire's plans from the other hemisphere than from across the English Channel. Not only has it been possible to give a political direction to the Australian censorship, but boards and bureaucratic bodies created by the Government for commercial purposes have been able to exercise an authority foreign to the Constitution, and to place a ban upon information of public importance according to their own sweet will. This state of affairs is revolting to all conceptions of British

liberty, and in Britain itself would never be tolerated.

The two main objects of the war censorship were to prevent the publication of information that might be of advantage to the enemy, and to suppress statements that might be prejudicial to recruiting. The enemy has surrendered, and recruiting has been stopped. These reasons no longer hold good. Nor is it possible to argue that a military or political censorship is still necessary to maintain internal peace and good order. One of the most effective ways to aggravate and spread discontent is to try and hide it by prohibiting publicity. British statesmen realised this many years ago.

The Spanish Plague.

The ravages of the Spanish influenza have been terrible in Europe and in America, and now the dread disease is amongst us. The Americans have announced officially that their losses in the war amounted to 16,000 killed. At the end of October there had been no fewer than 13,000 deaths from Spanish influenza in the military camps of the United States, and latest advices say that the number has increased to 21,000. On October 31st there were no fewer than 279,945 soldiers in the camps suffering from influenza. A mail steamer recently reached Sydney, and was promptly quarantined there. On her way across the Pacific she called at Samoa, and although the passengers were not permitted to land, incredible as it may seem, two sick men, one suffering from pneumonia, the other apparently from influenza, were actually landed on the island, the stretchers on which they lay being carried by native bearers through a crowd of curious Samoans. Now we learn that no less than 80 per cent. of the natives of the island have been affected with the dread disease, and that numbers of them have died. Urgent requests for help have been sent, and a vessel carrying doctors, nurses and drugs has been despatched from Sydney. It is certain that the Samoans will suffer terribly from the Spanish death, as directly they feel the fever on them they rush into the water and thus seal their fate. Great efforts are being made to keep the disease out of Australia, but the ease with which the germ is conveyed through the air makes it extremely doubtful whether the efforts of the quarantine officers will be successful. In view of the tremendous ravages which the plague has made in European countries and in the United States the Federal and State authorities ought immediately to publish broadcast what are the symptoms and the initial remedies that ought to be

applied. In view of the great number of fatalities in Europe it is highly probable that the Spanish influenza was to some extent responsible for bringing the war to an end.

Federal Affairs.

The Federal Parliament has been engaged during the last fortnight in passing the Electoral Bill, which provided for preferential voting in elections for the House of Representatives. The reason for the rapid pushing through of the measure is that the by-election at Corangamite is taking place early next month. The by-election at Swan, the late Lord Forrest's seat, demonstrated the fact that in a three-party fight the Labour candidate stood the best chance of winning, and the Government felt quite justified in hastening the passage of the Electoral Bill in order to try and save the Corangamite seat. The strenuous opposition which was put up by the Labour Party was hardly justified, as the principle of preferential voting is not opposed by Labour members, though the hastening through of the Bill was objectionable to them. Senator Gardiner distinguished himself by speaking against time for 11 hours 40 minutes, but his *tour de force* was unavailing, and ultimately the Bill went through the Senate and became law.

With the idea of backing up Mr. Hughes' demand that her colonies in the Pacific should not be returned to Germany by the Peace Conference, the Government introduced a motion to the effect that it was essential to the future safety and welfare of Australia that the captured German possessions in the Pacific should not in any circumstances be restored to Germany, and that in the consideration and determination of proposals affecting the destination of these islands Australia should be consulted. The Opposition as a whole voted in favour of the motion, although it strongly objected to doing anything which would strengthen

the hands of Mr. Hughes. Knowing the feeling of Labour members, one is amazed that no one of them, even if only to win a tactical victory, proposed an amendment to the effect that the Australian Parliament was content to leave the matter in the hands of the British Government, which had hitherto always safeguarded Australian interests. It would have been difficult for the Nationalists to vote against such an amendment, and had it been carried it would have entirely cut the ground away from under Mr. Hughes' feet. It is amazing that such an opportunity should have been missed.

Mr. Hughes, in his desire to convince the British Government that he thoroughly represented Australia, appears to have requested the Agents-General to ask the Premiers of the States to telegraph to the Prime Minister, supporting him in the attitude he was taking up with regard to articles 3 and 5. Mr. Ryan, the Premier of Queensland, sent him a message which showed clearly enough that Mr. Hughes, at any rate, had not the Queensland Government behind him, and although the other Premiers have not sent any replies, a member of the New South Wales Cabinet has been so exceedingly frank in his statements that it is highly unlikely that Mr. Hughes would obtain much comfort from any message which Mr. Holman might send him.

The inquiry into the doings of Mr. Jensen in connection with the purchase of the wireless plant and other matters has been concluded, and a report will probably be published before these lines appear. Mr. Watt continues to lead Parliament with great tact and ability, and if there is a reconstruction of the Government there would undoubtedly be a general feeling of satisfaction if, instead of merely "Acting" he became "Actual" Prime Minister.

MR. HUGHES AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

"Belgium and France get all they want, while Australia gets nothing for her sacrifices."
—William Morris Hughes in London, November 15th, 1918.

On this text the Prime Minister of Australia is delivering fiery speeches, and with it in his mouth is flatly contradicting the statements of the British Government in language we expect from him, but which is decidedly foreign to the dignified diction which characterises British

statesmen, and, indeed, until Mr. Hughes came on the scene, was invariably resorted to by visiting Colonial Ministers when in Great Britain. Australia, says the Prime Minister, gets nothing out of the war. Such a statement almost suggests that the Com-

monwealth entered the struggle for objects less lofty and humanitarian than we had been led to suppose! We believed that we rushed to the aid of Great Britain not for gain, but to support her in her struggle to make the world safe for democracy, and that we subscribed to the definite statements made in the early days that Britain desired no indemnities, sought no territory. Yet we have our Prime Minister like a puling schoolboy shrieking to all the world that Australia is to get nothing out of the struggle. Is this the man who uttered such dire threats against those mistaken folk who dared suggest that this was largely a trade war?

Mr. Hughes is making himself ridiculous before the assembled nations, and it is devoutly to be hoped that the choice of the Dominions will not fall on him when they select a delegate to attend the Peace Conference. There was at one time a chance that he might have gone thither, and we can only be thankful that his outburst of chagrin over the concluding of the Armistice without his advice has disclosed his utter failure to grasp the fact that the task of the Peace Conference is not to patch up an old world, but to create a new one; shown him up to be a person utterly unsuited to the part of peace negotiator. Why he stormed and raged as he did is a little difficult to understand. Attributing the best motives to him, we may assume that he sincerely believed that Australia was going to be forgotten by the British Government and that in the final arrangements her interests would be altogether neglected, therefore he lifted his voice and protested vigorously against the adoption by all the Allies of President Wilson's fourteen articles. That he has damaged rather than improved Australia's position at the Conference is pretty clear, but his motives we may assume were good.

There are those on the other hand, and, apparently, an increasing number, who insist that it is more a personal matter with the Prime Minister, who saw in the agreement amongst all the fighting nations, that there was to be no boycott or economic war, the destruction of all his efforts to ostracise German goods and German traders the world over, and that he could not see what he had preached in season and out of season calmly over-

ruled without violent protest. Yet others assert that, aware of his rapidly waning popularity in Australia, he was making a bold bid to win it back by upholding the rights of the Commonwealth even against the British Government itself. If that be so, he made a tragic mistake, for, instead of regaining his vanishing popularity, he, by his latest actions, is hastening its complete disappearance. I do not go anything like as far as do the present critics of the Prime Minister, but I cannot but be amused at the change which has come over the attitude of the great majority of Australians towards Mr. Hughes. Not two years ago it was a signal for violent attack in certain circles if one ventured to criticise Mr. Hughes or to suggest that, in changing his politics, he had not been able to change his spots as well. Now, so severe is the criticism of the former idol in these very circles, that one risks violent argument by venturing to stand up for him. Those who declared two years ago that he was not fitted to lead the Government or to represent Australia in the councils of the Empire, and suffered for that opinion, now find with astonishment that it is being generally voiced not only in Parliament but throughout the country. How are the mighty fallen!

Mr. Hughes, on his last visit to England, preached the doctrine of efficiency and urged the need of organisation and preparedness for any eventuality. He talked well to vast audiences, and then escaped from the country before anyone could ask him to do anything to put his doctrines into practice. He returned to Australia, and made no attempt to induce Australia to do what he had been berating England for not doing. His Win-the-War programme turned out to be nothing more than a Win-the-Election scheme, and when he again left Australia to go to England, he had nothing in the way of practical achievement to show for the absolute control which the War Precautions' Act gave him over the Commonwealth. When he arrived in London, he found that he no longer stood so high in public estimation, and at once set to work to rehabilitate himself in the popular mind. He plunged into the tariff controversy, and did not scruple to apply to Freetraders terms which they strongly resented. For truly

patriotic and great statesmen to be labelled pro-Germans and traitors by a vehement little man from the Antipodes was hardly nice, and, by thus descending to his usual style of controversial vituperation, Mr. Hughes, instead of improving his position at home further compromised it.

It is illuminating to read his speeches, though only some of the hundreds he has delivered have been published here despite his excellent press agents. In them he does not cease to declare that Great Britain, in his opinion, is as unprepared for peace as she was for war, and infers that if she would only have followed his advice, she would not now be in this state of unreadiness. His hearers must have wondered how this great oratorical solver of difficulties, which were taxing the brains of the greatest thinkers and statesmen of the Empire, had put his own country in shape for the coming of peace. No doubt they imagined that efficiency and organisation have been so preached by him throughout the Commonwealth that everything is ready for the struggle which the coming of peace will bring with it. As they listen to his strenuous advocacy of policies of settlement, and the remunerative employment of demobilised soldiers they must envy the men of the Australian Imperial Force, who, on their return to Australia, must surely find everything in readiness to settle them on the land, and provide them with that remunerative employment the eloquent head of the Commonwealth Government is urging England to provide. How they would be disappointed could they know the true position in this country!

Mr. Hughes is the only Colonial Minister who has objected to the adoption of President Wilson's fourteen articles, and it is becoming increasingly evident that the Prime Minister has not got Australia behind him in this matter. Thinking people must realise that for Australia alone to oppose clauses which were mainly responsible in bringing the war to an end is absurd. President Wilson, by his definite statement that there was to be no trade boycott and that the future of the colonies was to be decided on grounds of equity, not of conquest, deprived the military party in Germany of

their main weapon against those who were anxious to conclude a peace. Bulgaria, Turkey, Austria and Germany all agreed to make peace on the basis of the fourteen articles. For Australia to have stood up and insisted on having them altered, and thus have delayed the conclusion of hostilities further, was obviously impossible, but that apparently is what Mr. Hughes desired. It is conceivable that some of the articles might have been modified, but certainly not the two most vital of all. All the other Dominions, all the Allied peoples have agreed to leave the fate of the German Colonies in the hands of the Peace Commissioners, have approved the final abandonment of all idea of trade boycotts and economic war. Why have they done this? Surely because they realise that there is to be a great attempt made to make further wars impossible, because they have glimpsed the President's vision of a world in which force shall cease to be the final arbiter of disputes, in which a League of Nations shall rule the world.

If Mr. Hughes had his way, he would deliberately thwart the earnest efforts to be made to end strife and prevent future wars. He would deprive the League of Nations of its principal weapon in order that Australia might do as she liked regardless of the rest of the world, would arbitrarily settle the fate of the Colonies by right of conquest, not on grounds of equity and international fairness. What would be the position supposing Mr. Hughes insisted on the right of Australia to impose a prohibitive tariff against all German and Austrian goods? When the League of Nations came into being the Commonwealth would be informed that discriminating tariffs could only be enforced with the approval of the League. That, as Germany was carrying out the wishes of the League, her goods were not to be discriminated against, though the League would interfere in no way with the imposing of tariffs on any articles or with the height of that tariff, all it would insist on was that all nations should be treated on the same footing. If Australia refused to remove the discriminating tariff against Germany the League would then take steps to force her to do so. This would take the form of a refusal to supply Australia with goods, and the enforce-

ment of a heavy, discriminating tariff against all her products by all the countries in the League. The threat, of course, would be sufficient.

It is this power of boycott, and the withholding of supplies which makes the League of Nations possible. Without this weapon, wherewith to coerce recalcitrant members, its decrees could not be enforced. Yet Mr. Hughes is so shortsighted that he wishes to take this necessary weapon from the League altogether. In all his speeches he gives the impression that Australia is now animated with a "spirit of greed and revenge." There could hardly be a greater contrast between his windy assertions and the carefully weighed utterances of President Wilson and Mr. Lloyd George. Speaking on November 15th in London—on the same day, and in the same city, as Mr. Hughes made his speech from which the quotation at the head of this article is taken—the British Prime Minister said:—

We must not behave like small men, revengefully trampling down a fallen foe. Stern justice must be done, but beyond that, let us behave in such a way that the enemy will feel we have been fighting for high ideals and not for mere greed or revenge.

Four days before, at Washington, President Wilson delivered himself in the following fashion on the question of peace:—

The present, and all that it holds, belongs to the nations and the peoples who preserve their self-control, and the orderly processes of their Governments; the future to those who prove themselves the true friends of mankind. To conquer with arms is to make only a temporary conquest; to conquer the world by earning its esteem is to make a permanent conquest. I am confident that the nations that have learned the principle of freedom, and that have settled with self-possession to its ordered practice are now about to make a conquest of the world by the sheer power of example and of friendly helpfulness. The peoples who have but just come out from under the yoke of arbitrary government, and who are now coming at last into their freedom, will never find the treasures of liberty they are in search of if they look for them by the light of the torch. They will find that every pathway that is stained with the blood of their own brothers leads to the wilderness, not to the seat of their hope. They are now face to face with their initial test. We must hold the light steady until they find themselves. And in the meantime, if it be possible, we must establish a peace that will justly define their place among the nations, remove all fear of their neighbours and of their former masters,

and enable them to live in security and contentment when they have set their own affairs in order. I for one do not doubt their purpose or their capacity. There are some happy signs that they know and will choose the way of self-control and peaceful accommodation. If they do we shall put our aid at their disposal in every way that we can. If they do not, we must await with patience and sympathy the wakening and recovery that will assuredly come at last.

Side by side with these dignified and thoughtful statements we have Mr. Hughes' declaration that whilst France and Belgium get what they want, Australia is to get nothing. What a contrast! And what a ridiculous comparison. Imagine speaking in the same breath of the sacrifices made by France and by Belgium, and of those made by Australia! What an utter lack of appreciation of the true situation is thus shown. Yet, alas! the Allied nations and the neutral powers must think that Mr. Hughes is giving expression to the real feelings of Australians. Pity, indeed, that such a man should represent us at a supreme moment like this in Imperial councils, should speak for the Commonwealth before the world.

It is true that Mr. Hughes has raised in this unfortunate manner a matter which will have to be settled soon, namely, the voice Australia is to have within the Empire. The fatal mistake he makes, however, is to demand that at this crisis of the world's history the Commonwealth should be heard, not merely within the Empire, but at the International gathering where the great nations are to formulate the plans which are to make the world permanently safe for democracy. The matters he would have altered concern the whole world, not merely a small part of the British Empire, and it is the Empire as a whole, not a loose collection of Dominions, each with a voice of its own, that is recognised in international affairs. Mr. Hughes would be quite right to urge his desires upon the British Government in private conference, but he is utterly wrong to shout his desires, his anger and his objections from the housetops for all the world to hear. It would not be at all surprising if in addition to causing grave trouble at Home, Mr. Hughes, by his recent utterances, had also fatally weakened his hold on the Prime Ministership of Australia.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

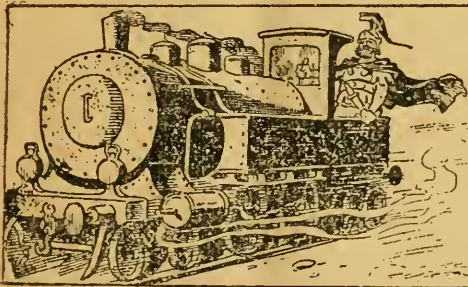
Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns.

The dramatic coming of peace has made the cartoons now reaching this country from Europe and America hopelessly out of date. They are interesting still only in so far as they indicate the attitude of the different peoples towards the war several weeks ago.

The Germans on the whole showed great confidence in the ultimate result, but that was, of course, perfectly natural, no matter

The St. Joseph's News Press, of Missouri, hits off the actual situation, for the German people, by kicking off the boots of Prussianism, were able to reach the branch of peace.

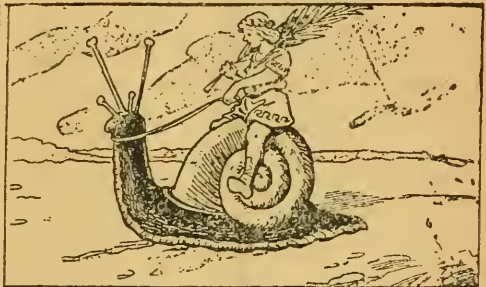
The Brooklyn Eagle well illustrates the President's phrase, "The past and the present are in a death grapple," by showing the tank of democracy fighting the megatherium of autocracy. *The Wahre Jacob*



Wahre Jacob.

(1) War.

DIFFERENT RATES OF PROGRESS.



(2) Peace.

[Stuttgart.]

what the actual feeling of the artists themselves might be.

A good many cartoons in different papers deal with the question of peace. That of

must have been surprised at the speed which the snail developed all of a sudden.



St. Joseph's News-Press.

[Missouri.]

IT MIGHT HELP IF HE COULD KICK OFF HIS BOOTS.



Eagle.

[Brooklyn.]

"The past and the present are in a death grapple."—President Wilson.



[Amsterdammer.]

[Amsterdam.]

THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR AND BELGIUM.
VON HERTLING: "We hold Belgium as a pawn."

The statement of the former German Chancellor concerning Belgium being a pawn, forms the subject of a strong cartoon in the Dutch *Amsterdammer*, whilst



[Times.]

THE OSTRICH.

[Louisville.]



[Iberia.]

[Barcelona.]

PEACE ON THE GERMAN PLAN.

ANGEL HERTLING: "This time we offer a specially advantageous peace. We will forget all injuries received, and that should square everything."

the Spanish *Iberia* makes fun of his last offer of an advantageous peace.

The Italian *Asino* has a wonderfully prophetic cartoon on the "Eagle's Strange Brood," as weeks later we witnessed the hatching of these eggs.



[L. ASINO.]

[Rome.]

THE EAGLE'S STRANGE BROOD.
And their new cry is most alarming.

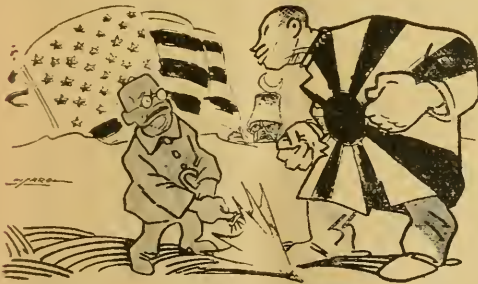


Passing Show.]

[London.]

THE END OF THE LIAISON.

THE BOLSHIEVIST MISTRESS: "Well, it has been a grand passion while it lasted. Now the game is up, the only thing to do is to desert this lover as I betrayed Russia."

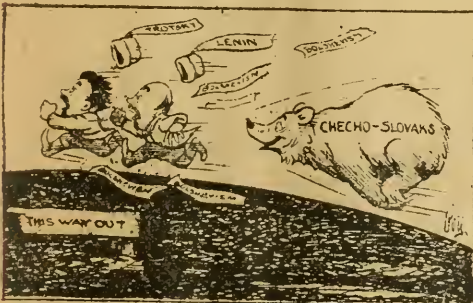


Campana de Gracia.]

[Barcelona.]

ASTRONOMICAL OBSESSION.

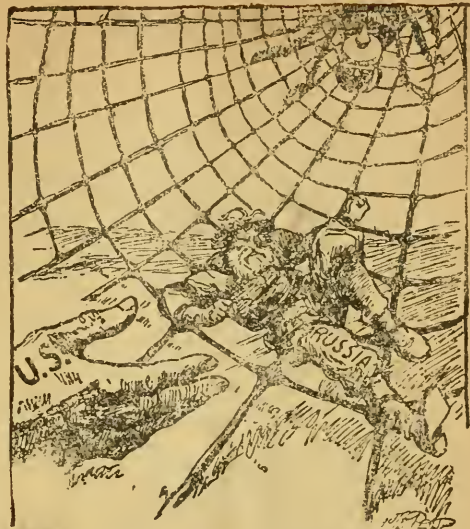
THE GERMAN: "What with the sun, moon and stars, I am getting fed up."



Evening News.]

TROT-SKY.

[London.]



Evening News.]

[Newark, U.S.A.]

A HAND TO HELP IN TIME OF NEED.

The Russian situation naturally called for considerable attention, and will still do so. The general impression appears to be that Allied intervention would speedily save the Russians from German domination, but had that intervention not been accompanied by victory in the West there was little chance of its having achieved that object. The success of the Czecho-Slovaks is also shown in lively manner, and the arrival of Japanese troops in Siberia is assumed to have terrified the German people.

All papers agree in attributing the Allied successes to the incoming of the United States. It had become a question of reserves. America had millions of soldiers



News.]

[Dallas, U.S.A.]

THE DESPERATE ICE-MAN.



Le Droit.]

[Paris.]

THE QUESTION OF RESERVES.

... and soon the scale will drop on the side which is able to "replace."



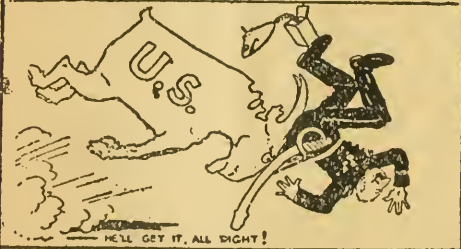
Tribune.]

[Chicago.]

The reason Clemenceau said: "We are staking the game upon the help of America."



UP HE THINKS HE'LL GET 'OLD GOAT



HE'LL GET IT, ALL RIGHT!

Post.]

[Cincinnati.]

GETTING OUR GOAT?



Neue. poster.]

[Zurich.]

THE KINGS.

"This is a time in which monarchs must stand together."—Extract from letter of Emperor Carl of Austria to Tsar Ferdinand of Bulgaria.

available; Germany had only the youths reaching military age this year to fall back on. America is given full credit for making Allied victory possible.



Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.]

INTO THE ABYSS.

The "Chemin des Dames" has proved to be a very slippery place for the Entente ladies.



Jugend.]

[Munich.

THE "WAR-WINNER'S" SERVANTS.

JOHN: "Have you really any idea where we are journeying, Jean?"

One of the best cartoons on this subject appears in *Le Rire*, and shows two scales, one full of Allied men to which lead ladders up which the Americans are swarming; the other full of German soldiers who are constantly falling over the edge.

The Swiss *Nebelspalter* some two months ago considered that the position of kings in Europe was a precarious one, and shows all the greatest kings on a rapidly diminishing island taking counsel together.

Kladderadatsch, in its cartoon, "Into the Abyss," was very wide of the mark, but it must be remembered that this was



La Victoire.]

[Paris.

AFTER THE BATTLE.

"Come and hug your Uncle Sam."



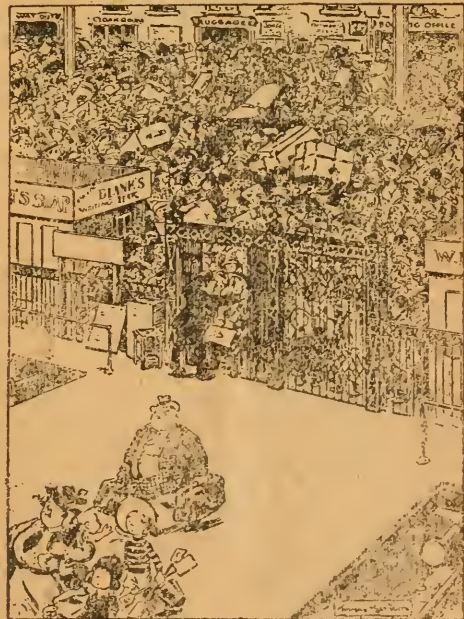
Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.

THE LOST TONNAGE.

MISS BRITANNIA: "So fare away, you brave ship! I christen you with the name, 'United British Force.'" (It is explained that the initials also stand for "U-Boat Food!")

drawn whilst the German offensive against the Chemin des Dames was being victoriously carried out.



Passing Show.]

[London.

THE "LIMITED" EXPRESS.

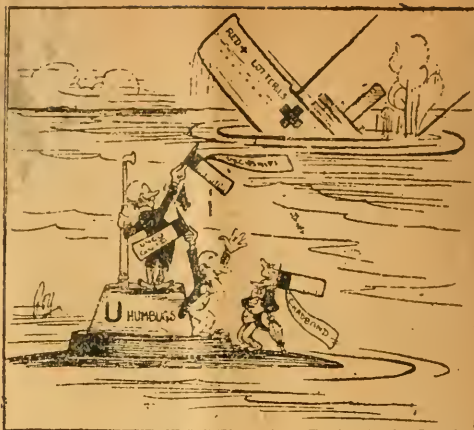
TICKET INSPECTOR: "One more for this train—but not another fat one!"



Le Pêle-Mêle. [Paris.]

THE TIGER.

The First Poilu of France.



Evening News.

[London.]

IT WAS A GLORIOUS VICTORY.

The same paper makes fun of the Allied ship-building efforts. Had it not been for new American ship-yards and the desperate efforts of ship-builders in England, the submarine menace would not have been neutralised as it was.

The outcry against lotteries in connection with Red Cross and other subscriptions has been as great in England as in Australia.

The Evening News gives its idea of the "glorious victory" won by those who opposed this method of raising money.



Hindi Punch.

[Bombay.]

THE NEW STAR.

MR. PUNCH: "It is bound to shed lustre all round. And it bodes good for India and the Indians."



Passing Show.

[London.]

SHORT-TEMPERED PERSON (as the tide splashes over the rock and drenches him): "Confound you, Sir! Stop jumping about!"



Nebelspalter.

[Zurich.]

COLLEAGUES.

MARS (to Spanish Influenza) "Bah! Loss!"

POST WAR PROBLEMS.*

BY PROFESSOR MEREDITH ATKINSON, M.A., UNIVERSITY OF MELBOURNE.

IV.—SCIENCE AND WEALTH PRODUCTION.

The war is virtually over, but we have yet before us the stupendous task of paying the greater part of the bill. Whatever may be our personal opinions about the framework or constitution of the present economic system, and the desirability of effecting changes within it, there can be no question that the enormous task of discharging the war debts of all the nations can only be accomplished by a great increase in the world's production of wealth. In emphasising this need, I am not forgetting the equally urgent problem of a more equitable distribution of wealth. This and kindred problems will be dealt with in due course. For convenience of treatment, one must isolate the separate problems of reconstruction as far as possible. Nor am I suggesting that increased production must involve extra muscular effort for the worker. It is conceivable that the new applications of electrical power, and the coming of the "Air Age," will together revolutionise the world's production. The better application of science to the production of wealth is of far greater efficacy than any additional labour power could be. Moreover, there is abundant evidence to show that the labour power of the world is used most wastefully, to the detriment of the workers and of all communities. If we applied science to the organisation of employment, we should have long ago abolished unemployment and ceased alternately to exhaust and lay aside the powers of the individual worker. There is everything to be gained from the fullest utilisation of science in every department of human activity. In the past we have failed in two different directions: we have not availed ourselves to the full of what science has to teach us, and we have been too prone to apply our scientific knowledge for the increase of national wealth more readily than for the promotion of national welfare.

The general charge brought by British scientists that their nation has seriously neglected the study and endowment of science in the past, is undoubtedly true. The crass ignorance and apathy of British statesmen, politicians, administrators, publicists, and business men towards the use of scientific methods in all departments of national activity is one important cause why the Allies, though possessing a preponderance in manpower and natural resources, were so long faced with the task of defeating Germany. Though the war has largely awakened us to the immense possibilities of scientific research and its practical application, there is still need for an intense educational campaign to secure a deeper respect for and knowledge of the main principles of science throughout the Empire. "Original research," said the late Professor Meldola, "is in itself the most powerful weapon that has been or ever can be wielded by mankind in struggling with the great problems which nature offers on all sides for solution." In April, 1917, Lord Sydenham pointed out that the war has had the effect of turning a strong searchlight upon the innermost workings of national life. "Our weakness and our potential strength stand plainly revealed. We can see how severely we have suffered, and must still suffer, from our neglect in the past; and if we strive to ascertain causes, we cannot fail to reach the conclusion that our lack of appreciation of all that science—using that term in its broadest sense—could have conferred upon us lies at the root of many present difficulties." The post-war problems which science can assist to solve have an even greater permanent importance than those relating to the conduct of the war.

Fortunately, throughout the world there is arising a recognition of the necessity for basing the development of national resources and industries on scientific research and organisation. In

*Professor Meredith Atkinson's next article, "The World's Commerce," will appear in our December 28th issue.

Europe, America, Britain and the Dominions, a large number of bodies has been created, mainly with Government support and assistance, to pursue research on a large and intensive scale, and to provide for its application in the economic sphere.

The British Government has recently created a new Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, with a fund of over £1,000,000 at its disposal; a conjoint Board of Scientific Societies has been established at the instance of the Royal Society; an important and influential Committee on the Neglect of Science has taken up the question of scientific knowledge and training in the Public Services, at Oxford and Cambridge, and in the public schools; an Education Reform Council, comprising representatives of science, industry and commerce, as well as of education has been appointed; while various other organisations have taken up one or other branches of the subject of the development of science and its co-ordination with industry, education and administration. In France a new national institution for scientific research on a large scale is projected as a result of action taken by the Paris Academy of Science. In Canada a Research Council has been established on a permanent basis by the Dominion Government to take charge of matters affecting scientific and industrial research in Canada, and to advise on questions of scientific and technological methods affecting the expansion of Canadian industries or the utilisation of the natural resources of Canada. In the United States a National Research Council has been established at the instance of the President, for the purpose of developing and bringing into co-operation existing governmental, educational, industrial, and other research organisations. In Japan a National Research Institute is being established on a large scale, involving the expenditure of over £500,000. In New Zealand and South Africa national research organisations are also being established. In Australia the importance of applying science to the industries of the country has been recognised by the Commonwealth Government, through the initiative action of the Prime Minister, by the establishment, in 1916, of a temporary Advisory Council of Science and Industry, which was intended to prepare the way for a permanent Institute of Science and Industry."—(Lightfoot, Report to Commonwealth Bureau of Science and Industry.)

It is singular that the enormous advance made by science in every department of knowledge and activity during the last thirty years has been accompanied by a great diminution of interest in science on the part of the public and of Governments. It would seem as if the outburst of interest caused by the great Huxley and his colleagues soon spent itself. The same type of lawyer and classical scholar who had long dominated the Departments of State re-

mained in power, and the scientist proved helpless against their crusted conservatism. It has been found that science can only be advanced as a national cause, either by men of scientific temper invading the sphere of government, or by the people as a whole acquiring a traditional respect for science, as in America, Germany, and many other countries. The former is not likely to occur, and for this the scientist can hardly be blamed. Nevertheless, he takes but little interest in the relation between his work and the practical problems of government. The deplorable want of scientific training in the administrative class is largely due to the restricted outlook and foolish disregard for science in our rulers. But the scientist is not wholly blameless. Too often he waits to be asked his opinion instead of carrying it with vigour into the councils of the nation.

It is often questioned whether a democracy has the knowledge and temper to encourage science. Democracy, as we know it, worships equality, and is impatient of recognition of any grades in society, even of grades of learning. Again, democracy responds too eagerly to the vocal appeal, and in that sphere the scientist is the least influential. To the scientist, the pursuit of science for its own sake, without an expressed utilitarian end, is the very breath of his life. Democracy shows but little patience with this meticulous and apparently impractical research. To the popular mind, the "non-fertilisation of the sea-urchin's egg," or the discovery of argon in the atmosphere, or countless other subjects of detailed research seem absurdly remote from reality. But it is, of course, notorious that some of the most important applications of pure science in our generation have been made possible through the unrestrained pursuit of investigations on lines suggested by the work of the laboratory, and not by the demands of commerce. This ever-increasing and immense body of knowledge is going farther and farther beyond the understanding of the average intellect. This again gives the literary man, whose subject is much more easily "understood of the people," an immense advantage under democratic institutions. Add to this the still-existing and obstinate prejudice of the super-classical public schools against science,

and we have a sufficient explanation of the difficulties met with by scientists in securing for their subjects adequate recognition in schools, colleges, universities and the practical activities of the nation. It is not without significance that the very word "science," which should mean knowledge in the broadest sense, has been unhappily restricted in meaning to studies whose subject-matter is material things.

A remarkable change of opinion has occurred in England among the most distinguished captains of industry in regard to the proper relation between general education and vocational training. An address by the Chairman of Cammell, Laird and Co., early in 1917, is the strongest witness to this change of attitude. The view is taken that vocational education should be postponed until a fairly late stage in a boy's course and possibly should not begin at all during his school period. The importance of technical training, even from the broadly educational standpoint, cannot be exaggerated. But there is all the difference in the world between training a boy in the uses of his senses and faculties during his school life, and bending his powers definitely in that early stage towards a certain vocational end. One of the dangers of a too-early vocational training is that the boy may be led to make a wrong choice of work, for in few cases does a boy show a final and decisive speciality.

It is very noteworthy that the ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are asked to supply ever-increasing numbers of men to take charge of departments of Industry and Commerce, and these not in the main science men, but those trained in other faculties. Their success is proven by the increased demand for their services. This is a great testimony to the soundness of a general education as an equipment for the practical life. On the science side, of course, the demand for highly trained men is growing more rapidly still. More and more firms, both in ordinary trade and industrial production, seek the aid of a scientific staff, a large percentage of whom are left to pursue pure research without any request for utilitarian results. This is all decidedly to the good, and is sure to grow.

The wonderful possibilities of science, when an opportunity is given to it, have been abundantly exhibited since the beginning of the war. The industries on which the successful conduct of the war depended have frequently received help from quite unexpected sources. Much of this, of course, has been the result of the necessities of the moment, rather than of an equipment already available but unused. One of the most remarkable successes was the rapidity with which vast numbers of delicate gauges for testing fuses were manufactured. Equally noteworthy is the manufacture of chemical glassware, certain machine tools and many other products, formerly the monopoly of continental producers. Many thousands of volunteers, without previous training, were quickly taught the most intricate, as well as the most ordinary branches of engineering work, and even small technical schools organised themselves most efficiently to take their share of this important national service.

How extraordinary had been the neglect of the scientific manufacture of many articles of national necessity is shown by such instances as that of certain optical glasses required by the Admiralty and the War Office, the entire supply of which was imported from the Continent, mainly from enemy countries. Yet the War Office had for years refused to grant the money necessary for the scientific investigations which would lead to a British manufacture being established. Dye-stuffs, the hardware trade, and a hundred other industrial processes have been allowed to lapse into foreign control, not because of England's refusal to adopt protective tariffs, but because of her reluctance to grant a generous national endowment of scientific research and technical education. That she has at last woken up to the need seems evident, both from the provision made for military requirements, through the application of science and also for post-war conditions.

We do not need to look any farther afield than the British Empire for evidence of neglect of our magnificent opportunities to exploit unexampled resources on a plan of scientific development. For half a century we have allowed the wranglings of Free traders and Protectionists to divert our atten-

tion from the more important problem of making the most of our immense supplies of raw materials, the huge amount of capital seeking investment, and the skill and energy of our people. America and Germany did not rely upon tariffs alone to develop their latent resources. Neither should the Empire depend upon either Freetrade or Protection as a main factor in economic development. We should take stock of our natural wealth on the lines suggested by the Dominions' Resources' Commission, and direct its exploitation with scientific precision and a constant eye to the future. Committees are now being actually formed in London to co-operate to this end. Arrangements are also being made for the more effective application of the results of scientific research in the field of Imperial trade. The appointment of British Trade Commissioners in every part of the world will do much to bring our commercial organisation into line with that of other modern nations. The encouragement of inventions, immensely stimulated by the war, will also receive much-needed attention.

Of equal importance is the problem of technical education, as yet in its infancy in Australia, and by no means what it ought to be in Great Britain. Australian Universities are steadily developing efficient departments in the applied sciences. It is, however, a standing disgrace to Australia that there is only one Chair of Economics and Commerce in the whole Commonwealth, and, until the formation of the Bureau of Industry and Commerce, there was not a single Government Department of commercial information. The Commercial Intelligence Department of the British Board of Trade is quite a recent creation, and "those who have had anything to do with it have been forcibly struck by its complete ignorance of commerce and utter lack of anything approaching intelligence. The officials are most polite and attentive. They will furnish blue books galore, statistics *ad infinitum*, and circulars and pamphlets enough to get snowed under, but for real, useful information and helpful advice the department is quiet hopeless." Thus writes a correspondent to *The Economist*, and though the Editor is of opinion that he somewhat overstates the case, commercial men are thoroughly dissatisfied with the Board of Trade's commercial equipment.

If our official departments are defective in the supply of commercial and scientific information, both private and public enterprise must be held to be equally neglectful of many of the most promising resources of India, Egypt and the lesser Crown colonies. In spite of her vast resources, India raises an Imperial revenue of only 7/- per head, compared with £11 in New Zealand. India's external trade is only £1/1/- per head, while that of the United Kingdom is £29, and that of New Zealand £42. The mineral resources of India are largely undeveloped. One small district of Burma can supply over half the world's demand for tungsten. The whole of this went to Germany before the war, though it is a most important alloy of high-speed steel. The coco-nut industry is very little developed by British capital, though its potentialities are enormous. In 1912 its products were valued at £70,000,000. Compare this with the world's gold output of £100,000,000. And yet most of the Indian coco-nut industry is financed by Chinese and Indian money-lenders, and four-fifths of the yearly export of copra went to Germany. Equally immense are the possibilities of bamboo, cane-sugar and cotton-growing. The British Cotton-Growing Association has done splendid work, but has still only touched the fringe of the opportunities.

These instances could be multiplied almost indefinitely for every part of the Empire. There is no better way of paying the War Debt than by the application of scientific method and organisation to the development of the incalculable resources of the Empire. In Australia itself the opportunities are as great as anywhere. In the smelting of our native ores, the building-up of the industries dependent upon metals, in the further development of our primary products, there is a limitless field for scientific research and organisation. And yet, no sooner does the Commonwealth Government lay the foundations for such work, than one or two newspapers shriek maledictions and pour ridicule upon all academic investigation and the pursuit of pure science. Such crass ignorance of the history of science, such cynical disregard for the interests of knowledge and progress are a woeful witness to the difficulty which the scientist experiences in winning from a democracy the necessary financial support for his work. If

such reactionary journals had gained their ends in the past, the most vital discoveries of medical science and wealth-production would never have survived the cheap ridicule of omniscient leader-writers. To such men Archimedes would be a silly old crank, Newton an

absent-minded professor fit for the gibes of schoolboys, Darwin a dangerous iconoclast, shaking the foundations of religious truth and social stability. Truly, science will fare ill at the hands of democracy if these be the organs of its opinion.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AMERICAN MERCANTILE MARINE.

One result of the war is that the United States will take a far greater part in the development of the world than ever before. Germany's industrial future is shrouded in doubt. With losses of men and changed conditions, it is doubtful if she will be able to be as serious competitor *on a price basis* as she was formerly. She may have difficulty in obtaining raw material, and her finances may be such as to leave her seriously handicapped. On the other hand, nobody knows what Germany can do industrially with the Russian territory and the Russian people. "It is doubtful," says a writer in *The Americas*, "even with Germany thoroughly defeated, if the present enemies of Germany will be able to devise a way to prevent her from using the materials and the labour of Russia in rehabilitation of her old position, and perhaps in the creation of a still greater industrial concentration than she formerly possessed." This writer considers that in the heavy competition in international commerce now before us there will be three industrial empires, all better equipped both extensively and intensively than before the conflict. Competition will be much more intense, not only for selling manufactured articles, but for obtaining raw materials cheaply and quickly. There will be strong competition, too, for handling the unorganised trade of other countries. The United States, the British Empire, and Germany, must inevitably come into strong competition. Japan, too, will be a busy competitor, particularly in the trade of the Pacific.

Before the war the greater part of American exports and imports were transported across the water in British ships. Thanks to the spending of millions of pounds without regard to ultimate business economies, the Americans have built, and will continue building, a

merchant marine which will equal, if not exceed, that of Great Britain before the war began. Mr. Edward N. Hurley, the Chairman of the Shipping Board, states that when the Board has finished its job, the United States will have 25,000,000 tons of merchant ships. Although originally the ships built were small in size, it was speedily realised that the larger vessels were more useful, and instead of building wooden ships of two or three thousand tons, these are now being turned out in a much larger size, 5000 tons and more; whilst steel ships, at first planned to have a tonnage from five to seven thousand tons, are now being built in 8000 and 10,000 ton types and even larger.

In 1919 the Americans hope to establish weekly passenger services between New York, Columbia, Brazil and the Argentine on the east coast of America, and between San Francisco, Ecuador, Peru and Chile, on the western coast. Already fast passenger steamers, plying between New York and Valparaiso, have reduced the voyage between those two cities from 27 to 18 days. Extensive plans have been made for the development of the South American Republics, whose raw products the Americans reckon to carry all over the world. Special liners are to be run from the Pacific coast to Japan, to China, to Siberia, and to Australia. In fact, the Commonwealth and New Zealand should greatly benefit by the creation of this vast American merchant marine.

But it does not suffice to build ships merely. Great ports, with special facilities for the rapid trans-shipment of commodities and merchandise are necessary if a country would bid successfully for the carrying trade of the world. I remember taking part in a conversation with Herr Dernberg, at that time German Colonial Minister, in which the pos-

sibility of Great Britain adopting Mr. Chamberlain's proposed tariff was discussed. "Supposing England did become a Protectionist country, what would you do?" he was asked. "I would immediately double the docking accommodation at Hamburg and Bremen," was the prompt reply, "because long ere you could establish the necessary 'free ports' in England, merchants the world over would have found it necessary to use free ports which already exist elsewhere, and the best of these are in Belgium and Germany."

It is now proposed to construct free ports in or adjacent to the principal sea-ports of America. A free port is simply an enclosure in the harbour of a country that has a tariff system, into which ships may come and go, unload or transfer cargoes, without the necessity of Customs supervision. To establish these is, of course, a costly business. I forget the number of millions sterling it was estimated it would cost Great Britain to set these up if she adopted a Protectionist policy, but the Americans are evidently determined to have them. These free ports are general international markets, where trans-shipment and re-export business may be freely carried on. Thanks to her Freetrade policy all the ports of the United Kingdom are free ports, and derive much of their prosperity from this fact.

But to secure the carrying trade of the world, and to build up a mighty commerce there must be an extensive and

efficient commercial organisation all over the world. Already America has made preparations for this. American banks are being opened outside the United States for the first time, and already have achieved excellent results. British ships, before the war, worked largely on what was known as the triangular system—that is to say, a British ship left Wales with a cargo of coal for South America, picked up a cargo of nitrates for the United States, and returned with a cargo of wheat to England. The Americans now propose to convey their own produce to Europe, and bring back their own imports from across the Atlantic, and they also propose to convey much merchandise from Europe to South America, and to themselves take charge of the conveyance of South American raw products to the United States.

It is pretty clear that, although the great destruction of merchant tonnage, and its requisition by the military authorities resulted in huge increases in freight charges for the conveyance of ordinary merchandise overseas during the war, ultimately freights will be even lower than they were before the war, as there will be a greater tonnage than ever before. Some time must elapse before the shipping situation rights itself, but if the Americans continue building at the present rate, in 1920 freights should have fallen to the pre-war level, and a couple of years later should be a good deal lower than they were in 1913. American vessels will, so to speak, be waiting on every trade doorstep in the world.

INDIA TO COLONISE GERMAN AFRICA.

Sir Theodore Morison contributes an article to *The Nineteenth Century*, in which he urges that German East Africa should be handed over as a special colony to India. Indians, he says, are excluded from entering the great and prosperous Dominions, and wherever they go find themselves turned away from one port after another, and that in an Empire to which they have been asked to contribute blood and treasure. Whilst thoughtful men in India recognise that there is a strong case for a White Australia, a White Canada, and for the exclusion of Indians from South Africa, they consider that an honourable bargain might be struck, and that India might renounce

her claim to unrestricted migration within the Empire if she could receive adequate compensation by having assigned to her a portion of the Empire in which she would have special interests and a privileged position.

I have heard it suggested that Mesopotamia now affords us an excellent opportunity of meeting India's claims; that Mesopotamia is potentially a land of enormous wealth, lying close to India, and therefore admirably suited to become India's Colony. This suggestion may be dismissed at once; India would not listen to it. The forcible inclusion of Mesopotamia in the Indian Empire would be deplored by Hindu and Muhamadan alike. This is a matter of sentiment; it is no good arguing that the sentiment is unreasonable; it is there; any policy which disregards it is doomed to

disappointment. You might as well attempt to commend Home Rule in Ireland to the English elector by suggesting that a Nationalist Government in Dublin would probably offer land in Ulster to English settlers. Mesopotamia can never be India's Colony.

"German East Africa," says Sir Theodore, "must never be given back to Germany whatever else happens. The magnificent harbours of Tangá, Da-es-Salem and Kilwa would, in German hands, become so many bases from which their submarines would prey upon the shipping of Durban and Lorenzo Marquez, and cut off the trade with India and the East, by bottling up the Red Sea to the north." Like so many others who have written upon the question of the German Colonies, he seems to imagine that the old conditions which obtained before the war are to continue after peace is made; does not realise that, if the fourteen articles of President Wilson are all carried out, there will be no possibility of submarines preying upon shipping, there will be no danger of Germany, or any other Power, setting up fortified stations along the trade routes of the world.

The claims India is asked to renounce are great, but the compensation which could be offered her is not inadequate.

German East Africa is no mean country; it covers an area of 385,000 square miles; it is almost twice the size of Germany, or, to put the case in Indian dimensions, it covers an area equal to the British Provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab, and the North-West Frontier Province all together. And this great extent of territory is not, like the districts which lie between Peshawar and Calcutta, already so thickly populated as to offer little room to immigrants; on the contrary, it is a land crying out for population; by comparison with India it is hardly inhabited at all. All this huge area has as yet but 7,500,000 inhabitants, approximately the population of two districts in Bengal. Even these figures give no idea of how thinly the people are spread over the greater part of the country. Of this scanty population almost half (3,500,000) are aggregated in the two districts of Ruanda and Urundi, in the extreme north-western corner of the Colony; the rest of the country is almost uninhabited.

On the central railway which runs from the Indian Ocean to Lake Tanganyika, Sir Theodore says you can travel for hours without seeing any trace of human life. As far as the eye can reach stretches the interminable bush, only interrupted now and again by an open plain, on which herds of feeding buck or zebra look up in wonder.

And yet the land is not sterile; even to the rough tillage of the natives it yields abundant harvests of mealies, Kaffir corn and manioc; and it is capable of producing crops which have a high value in the world's markets. Some of the best coffee in the world is grown on the slopes of Kilimanjaro; sisal, which nowadays yields an almost fabulous profit, will grow in nearly every district; while cotton, sugar-cane, rubber, cereals, copra, palm oil and groundnuts all do well in different parts of the country. During the campaign I spoke to many Indian soldiers, who for the most part were small farmers at home; they, poor fellows, had little reason to love East Africa, but they were unanimous in their praise of its wonderful fertility. The soil will grow anything, they said, and the rains are better than in India. One of them told me how he had measured a sugar-cane that was eight inches in girth; another how he had seen a field of wheat, of which one-third was being reaped, another third coming into ear, and the remainder of the crop springing green out of the soil; so regularly does the earth yield her increase in this unvarying climate. Perhaps the best testimony to the natural wealth of German East Africa which I heard was from the members of the Council of the Ismailis or Khojas, an Indian community which does almost all the trade of East Africa; the men with whom I spoke were themselves substantial merchants who had been settled in Zanzibar for several generations, and they had intimate relations with all the Khoja communities upon the East Coast and the hinterland; they had, therefore, exceptional opportunities for gauging the commercial value of the country. To my surprise they gave it as their unanimous opinion that German East Africa was a wealthier colony than British East Africa; they recognised that its resources were as yet very inadequately developed, but they asserted that its native products alone, copra, hides, beeswax, ivory, groundnuts, etc., already afforded material for a very valuable trade. "What do you think the country would be worth," I asked, "if it were developed by Indian agriculturists?" "Oh, then," they replied with one voice, "it would be one of the richest countries in the world."

German East Africa is such a vast country, so suitable for Indian colonisation, and potentially so rich, that India might well be content to accept it as compensation for her exclusion from the Dominions, is the conclusion of Sir Theodore Morison, but at the same time, the statesmen of the Empire must assign to her a privileged position in that part of the world, and recognise that it is India's possession, with whose administration they have no right to interfere. He thus suggests the methods of colonisation which would be adopted.

Let us consider what use India would make of these privileges. One of her first tasks would be to organise immigration from her own shores. Having decided, with due regard

to native interests, what areas were suitable to Indian immigrants, she would bring over Indian agriculturists and settle them on the land. I conceive that this would for the most part be carried out in the traditional Indian way. The younger sons of Raïses and Zemindars would leave India with a band of adventurous young men from their own neighbourhood, clear the African jungle and build villages, so that, as of old, a living part of India's social life would be transplanted and would develop in a new country. They would bring with them their village craftsmen, the carpenter to make their ploughs and carts, the weaver to weave their homespun clothes, and the potter to turn their cottage utensils upon his wheel. These men, self-sufficient in their little village communities, would be genuine pioneers and colonists; they would indeed live hard and simple lives, but they would be rich in corn and *ghi*, the two synonyms of wealth in village tradition. As communications developed they would provide a large surplus of food for export overseas. As, from her myriad little farms, India to-day not only feeds her own enormous population but also provides a goodly margin for export, so from the Indian villages dotted about the great wastes of East Africa, a thousand little rills of foodstuffs would trickle down to Dar-es-Salam and form a great stream of export. India would, in fact, by the normal functioning of her industrial organisation, pour into East Africa a flood of small settlers, that very class of *Kleinsiedler* whom the German administration was constantly trying to attract to the Colony, but of whose chronic failure to make good, their annual Reports are melancholy testimony.

He insists that these Indian villages would contribute more to the economic wealth of the Empire than the wealthy and enterprising white planter. Little by little the Indians would turn East Africa into one of the great food-producing areas of the world, but the white planter would fail to develop this side of the country's possibilities. Sisal hemp,

coffee, rubber, and other tropical products, were being grown by the Germans, who owned large plantations and equipped them with costly machinery, light railways, and the like. These are now in ruins, but it should be possible for the Indians to carry on the work of the big German firms and planters.

Those who are familiar with modern India will not, I think, dispute her ability to find the men for the executive and judicial services. The best of her deputy collectors and tahsildars would make excellent district officers; among her subordinate judges are to be found men who could preside with credit over any court in East Africa. I go further than this, and am prepared to advocate that the military defence of the Colony should be put in Indian hands. The Indian Colony should raise its own African regiments on the model of the existing King's African Rifles battalions. The educated young men who now become Deputy Superintendents in the Indian Police have in them the stuff from which to make good regimental officers with coloured troops. As a further measure of precaution the young Indians born and bred in the Colony should be liable to compulsory training in a territorial force, and so form a military reserve which would be of great value to the Government in the event of a native rising or a foreign invasion.

Sir Théodore certainly makes out a very good case for Indian colonisation of this great territory, and there is little doubt that if Indians were allowed to enter the place freely and to regard it as a portion of India itself, they would develop the huge country much more rapidly than the South African Government could possibly do. Yet, if this Colony is not handed back to Germany, it is hardly likely to belong to anyone else excepting the Union of South Africa.

A NEGRO EXODUS.

The negro problem in the United States has troubled the minds of American statesmen for years. It has recently become even more acute owing to the sudden migration of hundreds of thousands of negroes from the Southern to the Northern States. Some account of this exodus is given by Herbert A. Horwill, in *The Contemporary Review*. Since the war, he says, there has been a northward migration which has been a veritable mass movement. Some estimates place the number of negroes who have migrated northwards at over half a million, and what appear to be accu-

ate calculations place the number at 350,000 during 1916 at the very least.

The actual movement came as a surprise, to North and South alike, but its causes were of long standing. Answers to a questionnaire which has been sent over the whole South by Professor Du Bois show that the economic conditions in that region have provoked the most general and most deep-rooted discontent. The white man's monopoly of land is said to have virtually reduced the negro to a position of industrial slavery. "High rents and low wages," says a trustworthy authority, "are driving the negroes off the farms. The average negro farm-hand gets very little more for his work than the very mule he ploughs with—that is, something to eat and a very

poor place to sleep in. In many instances, especially when it comes to food, the mule fares better than the negro. It is only in isolated cases that you find a negro tenant who is getting a square deal." "There is money in farming, lots of it," says Mr. W. T. Robertson, the Mayor of Montgomery, Ala., "but the negro farmers have been systematically robbed by the white man since the close of the Civil War. If the negro farmers were to be returned all the interest in excess of 8 per cent. charged them for money advanced them they would to-day be living in brownstone mansions, just as the rich white advancers do." With low wages goes usually bad housing, in town and country alike. In addition to this, there is the constant grievance of racial discrimination, the ever-rankling sore in the lot of the Southern negro.

There are other causes at work. For instance, in a petition presented to President Wilson in August, 1917, by a negro committee it was stated that "in the previous thirty-one years 2867 coloured men and women had been lynched by mobs without trial, and that less than half a dozen persons out of the tens of thousands involved in these crimes has received any punishment whatever, and that not a single one had been punished for murder." Another reason for the unrest in the South is the boll weevil, whose depredations it is estimated have caused the loss of as many as 2,000,000 bales of cotton, valued at £1,000,000, in a single year. In addition to this there were extensive floods which helped the boll weevil to nearly ruin the agricultural prosperity of large areas and reduced the workers to destitution.

Just at the moment when conditions in the South most powerfully impelled the negro to make a new venture, there came to him an attractive invitation from the North. An incidental result of the war has been to stop the emigration from Europe, which in recent years has been recruiting the labour supply of America in its mines, in its railway construction, and in its workshops and factories. During the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1916, the number of permanent alien arrivals was less than that of any of the preceding eighteen years. The arrivals from Austria-Hungary were only about 5000, as against an annual average of 237,000 for the three years before the war; from Russia, less than 8000, as against 236,000, and from Italy, less than 34,000, as against 235,000. At the same time, there was a considerable increase in the proportion of females to the total number of immigrants. In the Northern and Western States the railroads and other "transportation" companies, the mine-owners, the iron and steel companies, the contractors, the manufacturers, and the grain-growers were placed in a great difficulty by the shortage of labour at a time when the belligerent demands for war material and other supplies were giv-

ing an exceptional stimulus to industrial activity in America. In this emergency they turned their minds to the possibility of drawing upon the large resources of coloured labour in the South. They remembered that the able-bodied negro labourer makes one of the best unskilled workers—from the employers' point of view—in the world. He is physically strong, he is willing and good-tempered, he is tractable, he is genuinely interested in the prosperity of his employer, and he is little affected by unionist or socialist propaganda.

Agents were sent South to recruit negroes, and labourers were shipped Northward by the train load. The movement was still further stimulated by letters from those who had gone North, telling of the high wages they were now receiving. The rush Northwards soon became almost a stampede, and whole communities were swept by an emotionalism akin to that of a religious revival. The white employers of the South soon became alarmed, and endeavoured to stop the migration instead of attempting to remove its causes. They arrested emigrants by the hundred, and locked them up in gaol, but the courts immediately released them. Campaigns were carried on in the newspapers to scare the negroes. They told of thousands of coloured men dying of cold and hunger in Northern cities. In the North the influx of this multitude created difficult problems.

The newcomers were cut off from their family and religious ties, they were unused to city ways, and they were an easy prey to unscrupulous persons, and had little notion of how to take care of themselves in unfamiliar surroundings. Many of them had made the journey from South to North in the autumn with inadequate clothing. At first there was a high mortality from respiratory diseases. A charity worker at Newark came across one tenement, a remodelled stable, in which fifty cases of pneumonia had developed. Not only in Newark, but in many other cities there was no adequate housing accommodation to meet the new demand. The migration, too, was often from a "dry" State to one where the negro was confronted daily with his great enemy, the open saloon. After such an upheaval, the process of acclimatisation, physical and moral, must necessarily take time. As someone has put it: "We cannot move people around in great numbers with no more preparation than a pay envelope."

In some of the States splendid work was done to meet the situation, but in others not only were no preparations whatever made, but there were serious clashes between whites and negroes. At East St. Louis, which lies on the opposite bank of the Mississippi to the well-

known St. Louis, feeling ran very high, and atrocities were committed. The negroes had first been introduced as strike-breakers and a movement was soon on foot to drive them from the city altogether. Eye-witnesses reported some appalling incidents.

In one street three white men saw a negro, apparently dead, lying in a gutter. One of them flashed a pocket lamp in his face, and saw that he still breathed, whereupon he and one of his companions drew their pistols and fired a bullet into the negro's brain. A baby was snatched from its mother's arms and flung into a blazing house while white women held the mother until the men shot her to death.

"I saw man after man, with hands raised, pleading for his life, surrounded by groups of men—men who had never seen him before and knew nothing about him except that he was black—and saw them administer the historic sentence of intolerance, death by stoning. There was a horribly cool deliberateness and a spirit of fun about it. 'Get a nigger!' was the slogan, and it was varied by the recurrent cry, 'Get another!' It was like nothing so much as the holiday crowd, with thumbs turned down, in the Roman Coliseum, except that here the shouters were their own gladiators and their own wild beasts."

"The spectacle," says the Boston journal, "has not been equalled in modern history outside the blood-soaked hamlets of Armenia. No atrocities of the war in Europe, even in Belgium, have amounted to a wholesale murder of townspeople. The wildest tales of German fiendishness have painted no picture as that witnessed in East St. Louis." Other papers comment in equally severe terms on the outbreak.

The problem that is now to be solved is twofold. In the first place the South must set its house in order. It must remove the disabilities that have driven the negro away from the region where, in decent circumstances, he could most happily live and labour. The policy required has been admirably stated by a Texas paper, *The Houston Post*, which urges the necessity of improving the living conditions, especially in the towns, of looking into the question of wages and rentals in the rural districts, of protecting the negro against persecution at the hands of petty peace officers and against injustice in the courts, and of organising in every county a representative committee, of whites and blacks together, which will investigate the complaints of negro citizens and render aid wherever possible.

CONCRETE BARGES.

The Americans have recently developed sea-going canal boats, made of concrete, which they claim are not only far more economical to build than steel ships, but give a maximum amount of cargo capacity, and are unusually seaworthy. These barges are 260 feet long and 43 feet wide, according to *The Scientific American*, in a description it gives of one of these vessels called the *R. L. Barnes*, designed by an old steamship captain with long experience on the Great Lakes. It says:—

The *R. L. Barnes* is an example of utility carried to the utmost limit; and one misses, of course, the graceful sheer and the faired-out lines of the standard type of ship; but after all, this vessel is merely the logical and ultimate development of the typical Great Lakes freighter with its moderate sheer, its long line of hatches, and its deck-houses concentrated at the extreme ends of the ship. In this age of insistent demand for ships, the *R. L. Barnes* certainly offers attractive features in her cheap first cost, great rapidity of erection, and large cargo-carrying capacity. She probably will find it easier to breast the gales of the Great Lakes and the Atlantic than to make headway against the currents of incredulity and the heavy seas of human conservatism and hostility to the thing that is novel.

The vessel was built without the use of bending rods or furnace, the only furnace used was a fire in a blacksmith's shop to heat a few plates for the stern of the ship. The Inland Waterway Commission is constructing 21 of these barges, and the Navy Department has let contracts for 12 of them for harbour work. The cost of a 500-ton barge made of concrete is £4000, as compared with the £8000 required to build a steel barge of the same size. It was recently stated that the chief engineer of concrete ship construction in America had stated that these ships would have an exceedingly short life, but he has recently announced that "from comprehensive tests of concrete structures in sea water we are convinced that concrete ships will last a minimum of several years without any protection whatever. By the application of protective coatings which are well known to us we are certain of an extended life of several years additional, and with the further developments of protective means upon which we are now working I believe the concrete ship can be made as permanent as steel, if not more so."

CATECHISM ON CURRENT EVENTS—LXXXI.

Since August, 1914, 2230 questions have been asked and answered in this section.

Q.—How many separate States were there in the German Empire when the war began?

A.—There were 26. Of these four were Kingdoms, six were Grand-Duchies, five were Duchies, seven were Principalities, three were Free Town Republics, and one—Alsace-Lorraine—was a Crownland.

Q.—Which was the smallest of all?

A.—The smallest in area was the free town of Bremen, which covered 99 square miles, but therein dwelt a population of 300,000. The next smallest was the free town of Lübeck, with 117,000 inhabitants. Of the States proper, the smallest was the Principality of Reuss, the elder branch, which had an area of only 122 square miles and a population of 73,000. The State in which dwelt the fewest people was the Principality of Schaumburg-Lippe, with an area of 131 square miles and a population of 47,000. The smallest Grand Duchy was that of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, with an area of 1131 square miles and a population of 106,000. The smallest Duchy was that of Saxe-Altenburg, with an area of 511 square miles and a population of 216,000. The Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, a prince of the reigning house of which was King George's grandfather, is little larger, covering an area of 764 square miles, and having a population of 207,000. The smallest kingdom is that of Saxony, with an area of 5789 square miles and a population just under 5,000,000. Wurttemberg is larger, 7534 square miles, but has only a population of 2,500,000.

Q.—Was the revenue of the German Empire collected by the Imperial authorities or by the individual States, and handed over to the Federal Treasurer?

A.—The common expenditure of the Empire was defrayed from revenues arising from Customs, certain branches of the excise, and the profits of the posts, telegraphs and State railways. The collection of this revenue was carried out by the federal authorities. The States, however, contributed to make good any deficits in proportion to population. This is the reverse of the arrangement in Australia. Here the Commonwealth Government re-

funds certain of the moneys it has collected to the States on a definite *per capita* basis. In Germany the revenue collected by the Federal Treasury was not sufficient to defray Imperial expenses, and this was made good by a *per capita* payment by the States. The following table is interesting, as it gives a good idea of the size of the different States, as the contributions are *per capita*:—

Kingdom of Prussia	£7,091,585
Kingdom of Bavaria	1,153,480
Kingdom of Saxony	857,015
Kingdom of Wurttemberg	419,525
Grand-Duchy of Baden	382,350
Grand-Duchy of Hesse	229,935
Grand-Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin	118,855
Grand-Duchy of Saxe-Weimar	23,800
Grand-Duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz	10,670
Grand-Duchy of Oldenburg	83,450
Duchy of Brunswick	92,410
Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen	51,135
Duchy of Saxe-Altenburg	39,270
Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	46,100
Duchy of Anhalt	62,375
Principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	16,190
Principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	18,415
Principality of Waldeck	11,245
Principality of Reuss, Elder Branch	13,425
Principality of Reuss, Younger Branch	27,495
Principality of Schaumburg-Lippe	8,555
Principality of Lippe	27,680
Free Town Republic of Lübeck	20,130
Free Town Republic of Bremen	50,005
Free Town Republic of Hamburg	166,365
Crownland of Alsace-Lorraine	345,050

Total £11,425,600

Q.—How did Germany acquire her Colonies?

A.—That question has been answered more than once in these columns. None of them was obtained by conquest. All were got by international agreement or by purchase. The African possessions were obtained by treaty with the other Powers. Kiao-Chau on lease from China in the same manner as we obtained Wei-Hai-Wei. Several of her Pacific islands were acquired by purchases from Spain, the rest by arrangement with Britain or the United States.

Q.—Is it true that at one time Great Britain had possession of what is known as German New Guinea?

A.—The island was probably discovered by two Portuguese navigators in 1511. The Spaniards, however, during the next two decades appear to have visited it often. In 1545 De Retez, a Spanish explorer, cruising round the island, continued his voyage to the Australian continent, thinking it was still part of the same island, and, landing in North Queensland, gave it the name of New Guinea. He formally took possession of what is now Dutch New Guinea in the name of the King of Spain. Dutch voyagers, including Tasman, in 1643, were the next on the scene, and finally the British arrived, Dampier being the first Englishman to land there, in 1700. Captain Cook visited the island in 1770. The Dutch, who had established trading stations on the coast, formally annexed the western half of the island in 1848. The Queensland Government, realising the desirability of possessing the place for strategic reasons, sent Mr. Chester, police magistrate at Thursday Island, to New Guinea, and he formally annexed all that the Dutch had not taken, in the name of the Queen, in 1883. The Home Government, however, refused to ratify, and, as a result, one-fourth of the island was lost to the British Crown. The two great missionaries who were at that time the most notable people in the island, Dr. Lawes, and Dr. Chalmers, both approved the action of Lord Derby. The latter wrote, "Derby was right in leaving room for Germany. The Colonies are angry from ignorance." In the following year, however, the Government took action, and established a protectorate over what is now called Papua. The flag was hoisted by Lieutenant (now Admiral) Gaunt, on November 6th, 1884. The German flag was raised in Kaiser Wilhelm's Hafen ten days later. The boundary between British and German New Guinea was agreed upon in the following year.

Q.—Was the German Colony of New Guinea confined to the island of that name?

A.—No; it included as well several large islands, Neu Pommern, on which is situated the capital, Herbertshöhe, Neu Mecklenburg, Neu Hannover, the Admiralty Islands, and the Solomon Islands (2), and some 200 little islands scattered about in the neighbourhood of the big ones. It is interesting to recall, by the way, that Neu Pommern was formerly called New Britain,

and Neu Mecklenburg used to be known as New Ireland.

Q.—Which of the German islands in the Pacific were acquired by purchase?

A.—Germany bought the Caroline, Pellew and Marianne Islands, with the exception of the largest, Guam (which was ceded to the United States), from Spain for £340,000 in February, 1899. It was in the same year that Great Britain renounced all rights over the islands of Savaii and Upolo, of the Samoan group, to Germany.

Q.—Were the Pacific islands a profitable investment for Germany financially?

A.—The expenditure on the Pacific Islands, excepting Samoa, in 1913, was 3,410,000 marks. The revenue was not sufficiently large to balance this, and the Imperial Treasury had to make these Colonies a grant of 1,650,000 marks. In that year the Commonwealth had to find £30,000 to make good the difference between the revenue and expenditure on Papua. If the Commonwealth at the Peace Conference is granted the German Pacific possessions she would presumably have to make good the difference between revenue and expenditure, which would certainly not be less than the £82,500 the German Government had to find; in fact, we may be quite sure that a larger sum would be needed until the colonies were again in working order.

Q.—How many natives live in the former German Pacific possessions?

A.—The German portion of the island of New Guinea, together with Long Island and Dampier Island adjacent, has an estimated area of 70,000 square miles and a population estimated at from 100,000 to 500,000 natives. In 1914 the number of whites was 283. The area of Papua, the Australian portion of New Guinea, is 90,000 square miles, and the population is estimated at from 200,000 to 380,000. The number of Europeans there in 1916 was 992. The native population of the Bismarck Archipelago, in 1913, was 188,000, and the number of natives living in the Caroline, Pellew and Marianne Islands in the same year was 55,000. In the Marshall Islands the number was 15,000, and in the German Solomon Islands 35,000.

Q.—Were the other German possessions financially independent?

A.—No; all of them required assistance from the Imperial Government. The de-

ficits between revenue and expenditure in 1913 were as follow :—Togoland, £9000; Kamerun, £3000; German South-West Africa, £830,000; German East Africa, £350,000; Kiao - Chau, £520,000. Altogether, therefore, the colonies involved Germany in an expenditure of at least £1,794,500, probably much more.

Q.—Is it really true that Wellington would not have won the battle of Waterloo had it not been for Blücher?

A.—There is a great deal of misconception as to the parts played in that epoch-making battle by the Prussians and the English. It was actually a struggle in which the British and Prussian commanders, working cordially together, achieved results which neither alone could possibly have obtained. The position is pretty accurately summed up in Wellington's own words when he prayed for "night or Blücher." If the Prussians had not come he wanted the dark of night, which would enable him to retire towards the Prussian army. Captain A. F. Becke, the great authority on tactics, in his account of the Waterloo campaign, describing the causes of Napoleon's failure, says:—"Another dominant influence in shaping the course of events was the loyalty of Blücher to his ally, and the consequent appearance of the Prussian army at Waterloo. Nor must we overlook Wellington's unswerving determination to co-operate with Blücher at all costs, and his firmness, on June 18th, or the invincible steadiness shown by the British troops and those of the German legion.

Q.—Was the army under Wellington chiefly composed of English soldiers?

A.—He had at Waterloo 49,608 infantry, 12,402 cavalry, and 5645 artillerymen, with 156 guns, a total altogether of 67,655 men. Of these, however, only 24,000 were British. Fortunately, however, he also had 6000 men of the old German legion, veteran troops of excellent quality. Of the rest of his army the Hanoverians and Brunswickers proved themselves staunch, but the Nassauers, Dutch and Belgians were almost worthless. Napoleon's army consisted of 48,950 infantry, 15,765 cavalry, 7232 artillerymen, with 246 guns, a total of 71,947. It was the flower of the national forces of France. Blücher had under his command 83,417 men with 224 guns, exclusive of Bulow's corps, 25,000 strong, which did not, however, join him until the battle of Ligny had been decided. Writing on this battle Sir Edward S.

Creasy, the author of the well-known *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World*, says that "Napoleon's victory was attributable to his skill, and not to any want of spirit or resolution on the part of the Prussian troops, nor did they, though defeated, abate one jot in discipline, heart or hope. As Blücher observed, it was a battle in which his army lost the day, but not its honour. The heroism with which the Prussians endured and repaired their defeat at Ligny is more glorious than many victories."

Q.—Would Wellington have accepted battle at Waterloo had he not counted on Prussian assistance?

A.—As already pointed out, this campaign was carried out by the two leaders in cordial co-operation. Wellington sent word to Blücher that he would accept a general battle providing the latter would pledge himself to come to his assistance with 25,000 men. Blücher not only came with one corps, but brought his whole army. Napoleon detached Crouchy, with 32,000 men, to prevent Blücher marching to Wellington's assistance, but the Marshal, saying: "It is not at Wavre, but at Waterloo, that the campaign is to be decided," left a single detachment to engage Grouchy, and, though himself wounded, led the rest of his army to Waterloo. As Creasy says, "he risked a detachment and won the campaign." Napoleon in his criticisms later found fault with Wellington for having risked the general engagement before having completed a junction with Blücher, but Wellington was certain he could hold on until the Prussians arrived.

Q.—Was it an easy matter for the Prussians to get through to Wellington?

A.—On this point Creasy says: "An army less animated by bitter hate against the enemy than was the Prussian, and under a less energetic chief than Blücher, would have failed altogether in effecting a passage through the swamps into which the incessant rain had transformed the greater part of the ground through which it was necessary to move, not only with columns of foot, but also with cavalry and artillery. At one point on the march on entering the defile of St. Lambert, the spirits of the Prussians almost gave way. Exhausted in their attempts to extricate and drag forward the heavy guns, the men began to murmur. Blücher came to the spot and heard cries from the ranks of "We cannot get on." "But you must get on," was the old Field-

Marshal's answer. "I have pledged my word to Wellington, and you surely will not make me break it. Only exert yourselves for a few hours longer, and we are sure of victory." This appeal from "Old Marshal Forwards," as the Prussian soldiers loved to call Blücher, had its wonted effect. The Prussians again moved forward, slowly indeed, and with pain and toil, but still, they moved forward."

Q.—Will the disappearance of their various sovereigns greatly relieve the financial burdens of the German States?

A.—The German States directly have not had any very serious financial burdens to bear to maintain the Kings, Grand-Dukes and Princes who ruled over them. These families are descended from the barons of the Middle Ages, who became great landed proprietors. By marriage, confiscation and inheritance the personal property of these families has greatly increased, just as in every other country ruled over by kings. The cost of the maintenance of these families, and, indeed, much of the cost of the upkeep of the Courts falls on the revenue from these private estates. If the newly created States confiscate the personal property of the ruling families they will benefit by obtaining this revenue, just as the Australian State Governments, for instance, would benefit if they confiscated the lands of the great Australian landowners.

Q.—But, in addition to this private revenue, did the German rulers not receive large sums from the public purse?

A.—They only began to receive such payments after they had assigned some of their lands to the Government. The Prussian budget showed an annual payment to the Kaiser, as King of Prussia, of £770,000. This was to defray the expenses of the civil list. The expenditure of the Court and of the various members of the Royal family was defrayed from revenues obtained from the private property of the Hohenzollerns. The civil list of the King of Bavaria was £270,000, and out of it had to be paid allowances to other members of the Royal Family and the cost of Imperial expenditure. The allowance made by the Government of Württemberg to the King was £101,000, and to other members of the Royal Family was £2500. The King of Saxony was paid £177,000 a year, out of which Court expenses had to be paid. In addition, other members of the Royal Family got £34,000 from the State. The Royal Domains were handed over to the State in 1830, and the revenue from these

exceeds the amount paid to the reigning house.

Q.—Does it cost the British Government a great deal to maintain the Royal Family?

A.—King George and other members of the Royal House have large private revenues from land. As Duke of Lancaster he gets about £64,000 a year from his Duchy, and as Duke of Cornwall the Prince of Wales draws some £80,000 a year from his properties. George III. surrendered the greater part of the hereditary revenues in England, and agreed to accept instead a civil list of £800,000 a year. In 1777 this was increased to £900,000, and in 1816 to £1,803,730. By that time the King had run up a debt of £3,398,000, which Parliament had to pay. Thereafter civil charges on the civil list were diminished, and finally almost all removed when William IV. surrendered the hereditary revenues of Scotland and Ireland. King George has not to meet any public expenses of Government, only salaries of the Royal Household, housekeeping expenses, and other personal expenditure. For this purpose he receives £470,000 a year. In addition he has the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster, and other properties, which have not been surrendered. He has not to provide for the members of the Royal Family; that is done by the State. Each son of the King—except the eldest—gets £10,000 a year after he becomes 21, which is increased to £15,000 on marriage. Each daughter gets £6000 a year. Queen Alexandra gets £70,000 a year. The Duke of Connaught gets £25,000 a year, and seven princesses get £6000 a year each.

Q.—What salary does the President of the French Republic get?

A.—He receives £24,000 a year, and is allowed another £24,000 for expenses. The President of the United States of America gets £15,000, and is only allowed £5000 for travelling expenses.

Q.—Is it a fact that Commonwealth Ministers charged with the government of 5,000,000 people receive salaries equal to those of American Ministers, who govern 100,000,000 people?

A.—There are nine Ministers in the American Cabinet, each of whom receive £2400 each. That is to say they divide £21,600 between them. Commonwealth Ministers are allowed £15,300 for division amongst themselves. Most of the British Ministers get £5000 a year.



PRESIDENT WILSON.*

There is at least one form of literature in which French achievement is beyond all others supreme. The mastery of critical analysis displayed by such men as Sainte-Beuve and Faguet and Brunetiere is unrivalled either in Anglo-American or German literature. Nor is there any trait which lends distinction to the art which the critics do not seem to have made their own. The quotation, the epigram, the genial irony which admires even while it castigates—by these, above all, is their work distinguished. M. Halevy's tour de force belongs essentially to this class of work. Like all similar efforts of the kind, his analysis is a little too logical to be true. The selection of characteristics for portrayal inevitably obscures many of those subtler nuances which it is perhaps given only to the great painter to reveal. But within the limits of a volume inevitably destined for no more than an immediate interpretation of Mr. Wilson to the people of France, he has produced what is little less, in its way, than a masterpiece. Americans, indeed, have been singularly fortunate in the foreigners who have surveyed their institutions. Tocqueville and Boutmy and Lord Bryce represent a triad which an Englishman may well envy. M. Halevy's volume makes one eagerly hope that he will devote the sober sagacity and wise insight this volume displays to a survey of American problems.

M. Halevy does not attempt to make Mr. Wilson a simple man. He does not see in him a few definite ideas of which the last eight years have been the relentlessly logical application. On the contrary he emphasises his belief in the pragmatic character of the President's thinking. He has chosen rather to

grapple with the problems as they have happened to arise than to make other issues about which he might well have cared more deeply. M. Halevy seems impressed by the conception Mr. Wilson has had of his office. Clearly he has made the Presidency a far more positive institution than at any time in the past half-century; and to M. Halevy that effort seems to redress a balance that had too long been wanting. He writes with deep admiration of the fight Mr. Wilson has made against the sinister interests of America; and his comment upon the possible consequences of the federal reserve system is noteworthy. Indeed, one may go even further and suggest that therein lies the possible outline of a new and suggestive federal system. M. Halevy believes that the famous attack upon the "lobby" of Congress in 1913 is one of the great steps in the freeing of American politics from the pressure of finance. He writes admiringly—with significant French experience before his mind—of the determination to allow each Cabinet officer to select his own appointees. Throughout his domestic policy Mr. Wilson seems to this acute observer unremittingly to have used his great opportunities for good. It is an interesting judgment. The things, about which one who is nearer at hand may well hesitate, ought, indeed, to weigh down the scale—above all the failure to deal with the problem of the civil service; but no one who remembers the tariff of 1913, the rural credits, the federal reserve, child labour, the Adamson law, and, beyond all, the appointment of Mr. Brandeis to the Supreme Court, can doubt that, whatever Mr. Wilson's failures, there is a very solid success by which he must be judged.

The larger part of M. Halevy's book is naturally devoted to the President's

*"Le President Wilson," par Daniel Halevy. Paris: Payot et Cie. Four francs fifty.

foreign policy and the line taken by his analysis is significant. If Europe was astonished by the war, he says in substance, how much more is that the case with the United States. He pictures a statesman confronted by two problems—the shortening of an alien conflict abroad, and the preservation of peace for America itself. He insists on the impossibility of Mr. Wilson's regarding the issue as one between simple right and simple wrong. He urges the difficulties involved in the Irish-American situation, the special German problem, the traditional American isolation. He draws a vivid picture of the way in which the war came gradually home to the American mind. He rightly emphasises the slow growth of Mr. Wilson's determination to make war as itself the final count in the moral indictment of the German Government. He lays stress upon the consistent idealism of his public professions and his public diplomacy. The adjective is significant; for Mr. Wilson is, in simple fact, the first statesman who has manufactured a foreign policy in the full light of day. When the last word as to men and ships and munitions is said, that is the essential contribution made by America to the new international faith that is being forged with such travail and such pain. The League of Nations is, as M. Halevy says, its essential concomitant. But the fundamental thing is the openness of mind and heart, the refusal to entertain reserves. It opens a new epoch in the history of institutions. It renews one's faith in the possibilities of democratic government.

M. Halevy does not entertain any lofty idea of Mr. Wilson's literary achievement, and therein there can be but little doubt that he is right. The President rarely writes without eloquence, and some of his State-papers will take their place in the archives of the world. His style is always clear and terse and vigorous; but he lacks the fulness of mind of those who, like Burke and Bagehot, have been his masters. The eminent readability of his American history does not conceal the fact that it is still the work of a gifted amateur. The book on the State is a skilful college text-book; but it does not display either erudition or profundity. His Constitutional Government in the United States is the brilliant

talk of an able man of the world. Yet I think M. Halevy rates the Congressional Government too low. Admittedly, it has not the body or depth of Bagehot's masterpiece nor the universality of Burke's political disquisitions. But it is worth while insisting that no commentary has done that same task half so well. Of books just below the very best—Low's *Governance of England*, the incisive commentary of Mr. Boutmy—it is at least the compeer. Nor is it perhaps safe as yet to predict Mr. Wilson's literary position. The fascinating possibility of an autobiography, the hope that the Congressional Government may have a successor ripened by the experience of a unique presidential tenure, must both loom ahead to tickle the palate of every epicure in political speculation. And those are dreams that many of us must regard as little less than moral necessities.

Of Mr. Wilson's personality M. Halevy says directly but little. He yet leaves a vivid impression of the portrait that has been forming in his mind. It is of a man who has consistently grown. It is of a man whose nature makes intellectual companionship difficult and opposition only the more determined. He does not charge Mr. Wilson with consistency—perhaps the most painful of the virtues. He seems to give him credit for a very American combination of intense idealism on the one hand and intense practicality on the other. It was an idealist who made the famous speech on the League of Nations; it was a shrewd campaigner who sent the famous telegram to Jeremiah O'Leary. And, despite M. Halevy's efforts at simplicity what, in the end, emerges, is essentially a complex and baffling nature. That is perhaps as it should be. No man who is simple can be a great President of the United States. He is the ruler of a Continent. He is the synthesis of so many varying strands of ideas and dreams as almost to bewilder himself in the attempt at their disentanglement. If Washington's nature was simple, there was at least Hamilton behind; and a library will be written before that problem is solved. Yet the student of history will be grateful since it is the resolution of the complex into the intelligible that provides the material for his philosophy.

H.J.L.

DO YOU KNOW THAT—

There are 160,000 negroes in the American army?

The price of meat in England was raised 2d. a pound a little over a month ago?

The German crops this year are estimated to be 10 per cent. better than they were last?

It is estimated that the total revenue from income taxes in Canada will be £3,000,000?

The acreage under hops in England has decreased from 31,352 in 1916 to 15,666 this year?

People have been fined in Great Britain for wasting rice by throwing it over brides at weddings?

India raised 1,250,000 soldiers for the war, four times as great a force as that raised in Australia?

1,500,000 men are at present required to man and maintain the British navy and mercantile marine?

Mr. Lloyd George declared that 150 German submarines had been destroyed up to August of this year?

Mice have been exceedingly troublesome in England, and special mouse-killing clubs have been formed?

During the month after the German drive to Amiens 355,000 British soldiers were thrown into France from England?

There was a skirmish recently on the Mexican border, in which 100 Mexicans were killed and about 200 were wounded?

The British Government introduced a Lotteries Bill to legalise lotteries at war charities, and this was rejected by four votes only?

Great Britain now owes the United States over £750,000,000, the annual interest on which would amount to £37,500,000?

The average daily expenditure of Great Britain on the war for the first six months of this year was just under £7,000,000?

The Italian Government has ordered the establishment of chairs of English and French Literature in every Italian University?

The tonnage of the British navy at the beginning of the war was 2,500,000 tons,

and at the end over 8,000,000, including the auxiliary fleet?

Valuable seams of coal have been discovered in Central Ireland? This discovery may alter the entire Irish situation in a few years.

Messrs. Harland and Woolf, the great ship-builders, recently completed a standard ship for sea in five working days after she was launched?

The Prince of Wales' Fund reached a total of £6,427,089? Of this sum £3,982,734 has already been allocated for distribution for relief.

Australia, though the greatest producer of wool in the world, has little more than twice as many sheep as there are in the United Kingdom?

44,417 rats were destroyed in ships and warehouses in the port of London last year? The work of systematic extermination started in 1901.

Whortleberries which before the war sold in England at 3d. a quart are now selling at 1/8, and the school children were given special holidays to pick them?

There are only eight distillery concerns in England and Wales, and over 90 per cent. of the public-houses are tied to or actually belong to the breweries?

The recruiting mission sent to West Africa by the French Government secured 75,000 natives in all, 60,000 in West Africa, and 15,000 in the equatorial zone?

Just a week before the Armistice was signed, cotton dropped 3d. a pound in America? This drop is actually more than cotton is worth per pound in times of peace.

The British Government purchased this year's salmon pack in British Columbia for £1,800,000, the money to be found, however, by the Canadian Government?

The famous Red Cross pearl necklace in Great Britain, estimated to be worth £200,000, would probably have brought in £2,000,000 if the Lotteries Bill had been passed?

The amount of money it is estimated would have to be found if the British Government took over the breweries in

England would be £350,000,000, and in Scotland £61,000,000?

Under the Food Controller's regulations no person in Great Britain was allowed to sell or buy any potatoes of the 1918 crop grown in the United Kingdom, except under licence?

Since the war began the Imperial Government has purchased £64,000,000 worth of supplies from New Zealand? The total value of New Zealand exports in 1913 was £23,000,000.

A Chinese factory has started the manufacturing of lead pencils with Japanese machinery, in charge of a Japanese expert? The market before the war was supplied by Germany.

At the end of 1917 it was estimated that there were actually 300,000 too few houses in Great Britain to accommodate the population, and that £100,000,000 would be required to provide these?

Although New Zealand is only a third the size of New South Wales, that Dominion in normal times sends two bales of wool to the United Kingdom for every three which go from Australia?

The caterpillar pest has been so bad in England that prizes were offered to school children who brought in the most butterflies? The first prize was won by a girl who got no fewer than 1415 in twelve months! *

In 1863, there was as much wheat grown in the United Kingdom as there was in the whole of Australia last year, and that the average amount of wheat grown in the United Kingdom every year is 60,000,000 bushels?

Argentine has altogether some 20,000 miles of railway, which is the largest track mileage of any country in South America, and the capital of the companies contracting them exceeds £250,000,000 sterling?

Mr. Pethick Lawrence, the wealthy newspaper proprietor who was granted exemption from combatant service on conscientious grounds, has since been employed as a farm labourer in Sussex, at a weekly wage of 27/-?

To raise the 150,000,000 bushels of wheat obtained last year in Australia required the planting of over 10,000,000

acres, but to get the same quantity in the United Kingdom in 1863 required the planting of 3,800,000 acres only?

More than 6000 women motor drivers have been enrolled in the United States in the Women's Motor Corps of the Red Cross? They carry all official telegrams containing information regarding overseas casualties to the home relatives.

Owing to the paper shortage, the Bank of England has been exercising great economy in issuing new Treasury notes? Consequently vast quantities of notes, in a dilapidated condition, are now in circulation throughout the United Kingdom.

Great Britain raised 6,250,000 men for the army and navy? If we deduct the naval forces we find that the army raised was slightly above the 10 per cent. of the population, which was formerly assumed to be the utmost any nation could put into the field.

Before the war Great Britain was importing 176,000,000 bushels of wheat and growing 60,000,000 bushels per annum? Production in the United Kingdom has increased to 90,000,000 bushels, so that only 146,000,000 bushels are now required to be imported.

Owing to inability to obtain the usual supplies of flax from the Baltic Provinces and Belgium, the cultivation of the flax plant has been greatly stimulated in Ireland? The flax crop this year is estimated to be worth £12,000,000, of which £7,000,000 will be net profit to the growers.

England and Wales, with a population of 36,000,000, spent £6,500,000 on secondary and higher education? Prussia, with a population of 40,000,000, spent £10,000,000 per annum, and the United States, with a population of over 90,000,000, was spending £14,000,000 on the same subjects.

Russia owes Great Britain £568,000,000; France owes her £402,000,000; Italy, £313,000,000, and Belgium, Serbia, Roumania and Greece together £119,000,000? This means that the Russians must find £28,000,000 every year to satisfy British creditors, and France must find £20,000,000, and Italy £15,000,000.

The Winds of Chance

By REX BEACH.

Author of "The Barrier," "The Iron Trail," "The Ne'er-do-well," "The Silver Horde," etc.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ROULETTA KIRBY spent an anxious and a thoughtful night. The more she dwelt upon Laure's peculiar behaviour, the more it roused her suspicions and the more she felt justified in seeking an interview with Colonel Cavendish. She rose early, therefore, and went to Police Headquarters.

Two people were in the office when she entered—one a red-coat evidently acting in some clerical capacity, the other a girl whom Rouletta had never seen. The Colonel was engaged, so Rouletta was told, and she sat down to wait. With furtive curiosity she began to study this other young woman. It was plain that the latter was a privileged person, for she made herself perfectly at home and appeared to be not in the least chilled by the official formality of her surroundings. She wandered restlessly about the room, humming a tune under her breath, she readjusted the window-curtains to her liking, she idly thumbed the books upon the shelves, finally she perched herself upon the table in the midst of the documents upon which the officer was engaged and began a low-voiced conversation with him.

Rouletta was not a little impressed by this stranger; she had never seen a finer, healthier, cleaner-cut girl. Here for once was a "nice" woman of Dawson who did not stare at her with open and offensive curiosity; she was not surprised when she overheard the police-officer address her as "Miss Cavendish." No wonder this girl had poise and breeding—the Cavendishes were the best people in the community. With a jealous pang the caller reflected that the Colonel's daughter was very much what she herself would like to be, very much her ideal, so far as she could judge.

When, eventually, the Commandant himself emerged from his sanctum, he

paused for a moment at his daughter's side, then he approached Rouletta. Very briefly the latter made known the reason of her presence and the Colonel nodded.

"You did quite right in coming here," he declared, "and I'm sure this dance-hall girl knows more than she has told. In fact, I was on the point of sending for her. Please wait until she arrives; perhaps we can straighten out this whole unpleasant affair informally. I'll need Phillips, too. Meanwhile—there's a friend of yours inside." Stepping to the inner door he spoke to someone and an instant later the Countess Courteau came forth.

Rouletta had not seen the Countess alone since early the previous evening; she went swiftly to her now and placed an arm about her shoulders. Hilda responded to this mark of sympathy with a weary smile.

"Well, I had to go through with it, to the bitter end," she said in a low voice. "Henri didn't spare me even that."

Rouletta pressed her closer, murmuring: "Colonel Cavendish is a fine man—I'm sure he understands. You've undergone a dreadful ordeal, but—it's nearly over. He's sending for Laure now. She can tell a good deal if she will."

"About the theft, yes. But what about the—murder? Joe McCaskey did it. There's no doubt about that. Henri weakened after I gave him his chance. He got to drinking, I hear, and evidently he conceived the notion of telling those men. He may have gone to warn them, to appeal to them—I don't know. Then they must have quarrelled. It's all clear enough when you understand the inside facts. Without knowing them it was natural to suspect Pierce—I did what I had to do. I doubt if Laure knows anything about this part of the affair."

The two women were still talking when Laure entered, in company with the Mounted Police officer who had been sent to fetch her; at sight of them, she

halted, a sudden pallor came into her cheeks; she cast a glance of alarm about her as if seeking retreat; but Colonel Cavendish grimly invited her to follow him and stepped into his private office. The newcomer faltered, then with a defiant toss of her head and with lips curled in disdain she obeyed; the door closed behind her.

Rouletta and the Countess Courteau fell silent now; they found nothing to talk about, and, in spite of themselves, they strained their ears for some sound from the other room. Even Miss Cavendish seemed vaguely to feel the suspense, for she finally took her stand behind a frost-rimed window and engaged herself in tracing patterns thereon with the tip of her finger. An occasional stormy murmur of voices, deadened by the thick log partition, indicated that Laure and her inquisitor were not getting on well together.

Suddenly the girl at the window started, her apathy vanished, her expression of boredom gave place to one of such lively anticipation as to draw the attention of the two other women. A magic change came over her, she became suddenly animated, alive, a-tingle in every nerve, her eyes sparkled and a new colour flooded her cheeks. The alteration interested her observers; they were mystified as to its cause until a quick step sounded in the entry and the door opened to admit Pierce Phillips.

It was natural that he should first see Miss Cavendish, and that he should greet her before recognising the other occupants of the room. It was natural, too, that he should be a trifle nonplussed at finding Hilda here; nevertheless, he managed to cover his lack of ease. Not so, however, when a moment later the door of Colonel Cavendish's office opened and Laure, of all persons, appeared therein! Quickly Pierce inferred the reason for his summons, but happily for him he was spared further embarrassment; Cavendish called to him, took him by the hand in the friendliest manner, and again disappeared into his retreat, drawing the young man with him.

Brief as had been the interruption, both Hilda and Rouletta had gathered much from it; their inference was borne out when Laure paused before them, and, in a voice subdued by the very force of her agitation, exclaimed:

"Well, hope you're satisfied! I got it, and got it good!" Her face was livid, her dark eyes were blazing wrathfully. She outthrust a shaking hand and unclenched her fingers, displaying therein a crumpled sheet of pink paper, a printed official form, the telltale tint of which indicated its fateful character. Both of her hearers were familiar with the so-called "Pink Tickets" of the Mounted Police; everyone in the North-west Territory, in fact, knew what they were—deportation orders—but in a tone hoarse and suppressed Laure read, "'Leave by the first safe conveyance!' That's what it says. The first safe conveyance. I suppose you'd like it better if it were a Blue Ticket and I had to leave in twenty-four hours. You put it over, but I won't forget: I'll get even with you!"

"We had nothing to do with that," the Countess declared quietly. "I'm sorry you take it so hard, but—it serves you right."

"Who wouldn't take it hard? To be expelled, fired out like a thief, a——" the girl's voice broke, then she pulled herself together and uttered a quavering artificial laugh. She tossed her head again, with an obvious attempt at defiance. "Oh, it takes more than a Pink Ticket to down me! Anyhow, I'm sick of this place, sick of the people. I hate them." With a vicious fling of her shoulders she swept on to a seat as far from them as possible and sank into it.

So the girl had confessed, Hilda reflected. She was glad for Pierce's sake that this miserable complication was in process of clearing up and that he would be finally and completely exonerated; she was glad, too, that her efforts in his behalf, her humiliation, had borne fruit. He would never know how high he had made her pay, but that was all right; she felt very gently toward him at this moment and experienced a certain wistful desire that he might understand how unselfish had been her part. It might make a difference—probably it would. Things now were not as they had been—she was a free woman. This thought obtruded itself insistently into the midst of her meditations. Yes, Courteau was gone; there was no reason now why she could not look any man honestly in the eye. Of course, there was the same disparity in years between her and Pierce which she had recognised from the be-

ginning, but after all was that necessarily fatal? He had loved her genuinely enough at one time: Hilda recalled that windy night on the shores of Linderman when the whimper of a rising storm came out of the darkness, when the tree-tops tossed their branches to the sky and when her own soul had broken its fetters and defied restraint. She thrilled at memory of those strong young arms about her, those hot lips pressing hers. That was a moment to remember always. And those dreamy, magic days that had followed, the more delightful, the more unreal, because she had deliberately drugged her conscience. Then that night at White Horse! He had told her bitterly, broken-heartedly, that he could never forget; perhaps even yet—With an effort Hilda Courteau roused herself. Never forget? Why, he had forgotten the very next day, as was quite natural. No, she was a foolish sentimentalist, and he—well, he was just one whom Fate had cast for a lover's *role*, one destined to excite affection in women, good and bad. Some day he would find his mate, and—Hilda believed she loved him well enough to rejoice in his happiness when it came. There spoke the maternal instinct which Phillips had the knack of rousing; for want of something better she determined she would cherish that.

Meanwhile, Laure sat in her corner, her head bowed, her very soul in revolt. She was tasting failure, disappointment, balked desire, and it was like gall in her mouth; she could have cried out aloud in her rage. She hated these other women whom she blamed for her undoing, she hated Cavendish, Pierce Phillips, herself.

"It serves me right," she told herself furiously. "I deserve the Pink Ticket for making a fool of myself. Yes, a *fool*; What has Pierce ever done for me? Nothing. And I—?" Before her mind's eye came a vision of the opportunities she had let slip, the chances she had ignored. She knew full well that she could have had the pick of many men—the new-made millionaires of Dawson—but, instead she had chosen him. And why? Merely because he had a way, a smile, a warm and pleasing personality—some magnetic appeal too intangible to identify. It was like her to make the wrong choice—she always did. She had come North with but one desire, one determination; namely, to make

money, to reap to the full her share of this free harvest. She had given up the life she liked, the people she knew, the comforts she craved, for that and for nothing else, and what a mess she had made of the venture! Other girls not half so smart, not half so pretty as she, had feathered their nests right here before her eyes, while she was wasting her time. They had kept their heads and they would go out in the spring, first-class, with good clothes and a bank-roll in the purser's safe. Some of them were married and respectable. "Never again!" she whispered to herself. "The next one will pay!" Chagrin at the treatment she had suffered filled her with a poisonous hatred of all mankind, and soundlessly she cursed Phillips as the cause of her present plight.

Such thoughts as these ran tumbling through the girl's mind; her rage and her resentment were real enough; nevertheless, through this overtone there ran another note; a small voice was speaking in the midst of all her tumult—a small voice which she refused to listen to. "What I ever saw in him, I don't know," she sneered, goading herself to further bitterness and stiffening her courage. "I never really cared for him: I'm too wise for that. I don't care for him now; I detest the poor, simple-minded fool, I—*hate him!*" So she fought with herself, drowning the persistent piping of that other voice. Then her eyes dropped to that fatal paper in her lap and suddenly venom fled from her. She wondered if Cavendish would tell Pierce that he had given her the Pink Ticket. Probably not; the Mounted Police were usually close-mouthed about such things, and yet—Laure crushed the paper into a crumpled ball and furtively hid it in the pocket of her coat, then she raised wild, apprehensive eyes to the door. If only she dared slip out now, before Pierce reappeared, before he had a chance to see her. It seemed as if she could not bear to have him know, but—Cavendish had ordered her to wait. "My God!" the girl whispered, "I'll die, if he knows. I'll die!" She began to tremble wretchedly and to wring her hands; she could not remove her gaze from the door.

This waiting-room at the Barracks had housed people of divers and many sorts during its brief history; it had harboured strained faces, it had been the

scene of strong emotional conflicts, but never perhaps had its narrow walls encompassed emotions in wider contrasts than those experienced by the four silent women who waited there at this moment. One object of interest dominated the thoughts of each of them; those thoughts were similar in nature and sprang from the same starting-point; curiously enough, however, they took channels as wide apart as the poles.

Josephine Cavendish had heard just enough about the incidents of the previous night to awaken her apprehensions and to stir her feeling of loyalty to the depths. The suggestion that Pierce Phillips was in the slightest degree responsible for the death of Count Courteau had roused her indignation and her fighting blood. Unable to endure the suspense of idle waiting, she had sought relief by assuming a sort of sentinel post where she could watch developments. It was something to be close to his affairs; it was next to being close to him, hence the reason of her presence and her insistence upon remaining.

In her mind there had never been the slightest question of Pierce's innocence; any doubt of it, expressed or implied, awoke in her a sharp and bitter antagonism quite remarkable; no bird could have flown quicker to the aid of her chick, no wolf-mother could have bristled more ferociously at threat to her cub than did this serene, inexperienced girl-woman at hint of peril to Pierce Phillips. And yet, on the surface at least, she and Pierce were only friends. He had never voiced a word of love to her, but—of what use are words when hearts are full and when confession lurks in every glance, every gesture, when every commonplace is thrilling and significant?

In her eyes no disgrace whatever attached to him as a result of the notoriety he had suffered; on the contrary, she considered him a martyr, a hero, the object of a deep conspiracy, and his wrongs smarted her. He was, in short, a romantic figure. Moreover, she had recently begun to believe that this entire situation was contrived purely for the purpose of bringing them together, of acquainting them with each other and of testing the strength of their mutual regard. These other women, whom she saw to-day for the first time, she considered merely extra figures in the drama

of which she and Pierce played the leads—witnesses in the case deserving no attention. She would be grateful to them, of course, if they succeeded in helping him, but at best they were minor characters, supers in the cast. Once Pierce himself strode into the scene she forgot them entirely.

What a picture her lover made, she reflected; how he filled her eye! What importance he possessed! Surely the world must see and feel how dominant, how splendid he was; it must recognise how impossible it would be for him to do wrong. The mere sight of him had set her to vibrating, and now inspired in her a certain reckless abandon; guilty or innocent, he was her mate and she would have followed him at a word. But—he was innocent, it was her part to wait here as patiently as she could until the fact was proven, and until he could ask that question which forever trembled between them.

Such thoughts as these were impossible to conceal; they were mirrored upon the face of the Colonel's daughter as she stood raptly gazing at the door through which Pierce Phillips had disappeared. Her lips were parted, the shadow of the smile his coming had evoked still lingered upon them, her soul was in her shining eyes. Unknown to her, at least one of the other women present had read her sudden emotions and now watched her curiously, with an intent and growing astonishment.

Rouletta Kirby had been as quick as the Countess to correctly interpret Laure's chagrin, and she too had experienced a tremendous relief. Oddly enough, however, she had felt no such fierce and jealous exultation as she had anticipated, there had been no selfish thrill such as she had expected. What ailed her? she wondered. While groping for an answer, her attention had been challenged by the expression upon Miss Cavendish's face, and vaguely she began to comprehend the truth. Breathlessly now she watched the girl; slowly conviction grew into certainty.

So! That was why the Colonel's daughter was here. That was why, at sound of a certain step, she had become glorified. That was why Pierce had been blind to her own and Hilda's presence in the room.

It would be untrue to say that Rouletta was not shocked by this discovery. It came like a thunderclap, and its very unexpectedness jolted her mind out of the ruts it had been following these many days. But, astonishing to relate, it caused her no anguish. After the first moment or two of dizzy bewilderment had passed she found that her whole being was galvanised into new life and that the eyes of her soul were opened to a new light. With understanding came a peculiar emotional let-down, a sudden welcome relaxation—almost a sensation of relief.

Rouletta asked herself over and over, what could be the matter with her, why she felt no twinge, no jealousy, why the sight of that eager, breathless girl with the rapturous face, failed to cause her a heartache? She was amazed at herself. It could not be that she no longer cared for Pierce; that she had mistaken her feelings towards him. No, he was what he had always been, her ideal—the finest, the most lovable, the dearest creature she had ever met; just the sort of fellow she had always longed to know, the kind any girl would crave for lover, friend, brother. She felt very tender toward him; she was not greatly surprised that the nicest girl in Dawson had recognised his charm and had surrendered to it. Well, he deserved the nicest girl in the world.

Rouletta was startled at the direction her thoughts were taking. Did she love Pierce Phillips as she had believed she did, or had she merely fallen in love with his good qualities? Certainly he had never been dearer to her than he was at this moment, and yet—Rouletta abandoned the problem of self-analysis and allowed her bubbling relief at the turn events had taken to remain a mystery for the time being.

The door to the Commandant's office opened without warning; Pierce stood framed in it. His head was up, his shoulders were back, his countenance was alight; with confident tread he entered the big room and crossed it directly to the girl who stood waiting beside the table. He held out his two hands to her and with a flash of her clear blue eyes she placed hers in his. Gladness, trust, blind faith and adoration were in her face, she murmured something which Rouletta did not hear, for at that instant

Colonel Cavendish appeared with the curt announcement:

"That is all, ladies. You needn't remain longer."

Blindly, confusedly, Rouletta rose and fumbled with her wraps. She saw the Colonel go to Laure and speak with her in a stiff, formal way. She saw Pierce and Josephine turn away hand in hand, their heads close together—he had not even glanced in her direction—then Cavendish was speaking to her directly.

At first she did not understand him, but finally made out that he was telling her that everything had been cleared up, including even the mystery of Count Courteau's gold-sack.

"Laure confessed that she got a duplicate key to the cashier's cage," she heard the Colonel say. "Got it from Pierce. It was she who put the evidence in there during the confusion. Pretty ingenious, I call it, and pretty spiteful."

"Did she—have anything to say about the—the murder?" Rouletta inquired.

"No. But the Countess has that figured out right, I'm sure. We'll have the proof when Rock brings back his prisoners."

As Rouletta moved toward the door Pierce stopped her; there was a ring in his voice as he said:

"Rouletta, I want you to meet Miss Cavendish. I want the two nicest girls in the world to know each other. Josephine, this is Miss Kirby, of whom I've said so much." Then, without reason, he laughed joyously, and so did the Colonel's daughter.

The latter took Rouletta's hand in a warm and friendly clasp, her smiling lips were tremulous; engagingly, shyly she said:

"Pierce has told me how splendid you've been to him, and I am sure you're as happy as we are, but—things always come out right if we wish for it hard enough. Don't you think so?"

The Countess Courteau was walking slowly when Rouletta overtook her a block or so down the street. She looked up as the younger woman joined her.

"Well," she said, "I presume you saw. Not a look, not a thought for anyone but her—that other girl."

"Yes, I saw." There was a pause, then: "She's wonderful. I think I'm very glad."

"Glad?" Hilda raised her brows, she glanced curiously at the speaker.

"If I had a brother I'd want him to love a girl like that."

"But—you have no brother, outside of 'Poleon Doret." Hilda was more than ever amazed when her companion laughed softly, contentedly.

"I know, but if I had one I'd want him to be like Pierce. I—my dear, something has changed in me, oh, surprisingly! I scarcely know what it is, but—I'm walking on air and my eyes are open for the first time. And you? We've been honest with each other—how do you feel?"

"I?" The countess smiled wistfully. "Why—it doesn't matter how I feel! The boy has found himself, and nothing else is of the least importance."

CHAPTER XXXVII.

JOE McCASKEY was not a coward, neither was he a superstitious man, but he had imagination. The steady strain of his and Frank's long flight, the certainty of pursuit close behind, had frayed his nerve and rendered him jumpy. For a man in his condition to be awakened out of a trance-like sleep by an intruder at once invisible, dumb; to feel the presence of that mysterious visitor and actually to see him—it bulked dim and formless among the darting shadows cast by a blazing match, was a test indeed. It was too much for Joe.

As for Frank, he had actually seen nothing, heard nothing except his brother's voice, and then—that sigh. For that very reason his terror was, if anything, even greater than his brother's.

During what seemed an age there was no sound except the stertorous breathing of the McCaskeys themselves and the stir of the dogs outside. The pale square of the single window, over which a bleached-out cotton flour-sack had been tacked, let in only enough light to intensify the gloom. Within the cabin was a blackness, thick, tangible, oppressive; the brothers stared into it with bulging eyes and listened with eardrums strained to the point of rupture. Oddly enough, this utter silence augmented their agitation. Unable finally to smother the evidence of his steadily growing fright Frank uttered a half-audible moan. Joe,

in the next bunk, put it down as a new and threatening phenomenon. What sort of thing was it that sighed and moaned thus? As evidence of the direction Joe's mind was taking he wondered if these sounds could be the complaint of Courteau's unshriven spirit? It was a shocking thought, but involuntarily he gasped the dead man's name.

A guilty conscience is a proven coward-maker, so—too, is a quick, imaginative mind. It took only a moment or two to convince Joe that this nocturnal interloper was not a creature of flesh and blood, but some enormous, unmentionable, creeping thing come out of the other world—out of the cold earth—to visit punishment upon him for his crime. He could hear it stirring finally, now here, now there; he could make out the rustle of its grave-clothes. There is no doubt that the cabin was full of half-distinguishable sounds—so is any warm habitation—but to Joe's panicky imagination the nature of these particular sounds indicated that they could not come from any normal, living being. There was, for instance, a slow, asthmatic wheezing, like the breath of a sorely wounded man; a stretching and straining as of a body racked with mortal agony; even a faint bubbling choke like a death-rattle heard in an adjoining chamber. These and others, as horribly suggestive. Joe's wild agitation distorted all of them, no matter whether they came from his brother Frank, from the poorly seasoned pole rafters overhead, or from the sleepy dogs outside, and 'Poleon Doret, with a grim internal chuckle, took advantage of the fact.

When finally the elder McCaskey heard his own name whispered, the last shred of self-control left to him was whipped away; his wits went skittering, and for a second time he groped with frantic, twitching fingers for his revolver. He raised it, and with a yeli, fired at random into the blackness, meanwhile covering his eyes with his left arm for fear of beholding in the sulphurous flash that bloodless, fleshless menace, whatever it might be.

Somehow he managed to get out of bed and to place his back against the wall, and there he cowered until he heard his brother's body threshing about the floor. As a matter of fact, that shot had sent Frank sprawling from his bunk, and

AN EPIDEMIC THAT HAS BEEN, AND STILL IS, VERY PREVALENT,
IS THAT OF

INFLUENZA

It sweeps over countries in a comparatively short space of time, attacking all classes alike. Prompt action is therefore necessary to arrest its progress, and safeguard every family or individual from probable serious results. There is one speedy, effective, and practical way of doing this, and that is by using

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"OH ! BOY
Look at My Pink
Corn Free Toes !"

"They just tingle with
joy! And what agony I
did endure from those
wretched corns. Never
dreamed 'twas possible
to get rid of
them.

"But now I
wear the snug-
gest, daintiest
little shoes you
ever saw.

"Listen girls! A tiny vial
of FROZOL-ICE costs but a
trifle but is ample to free
your feet from every hard or
soft corn, corns between toes
or callouses.

"Drop a little on your sore
touchy ones. Can't hurt. Pain
goes at once. And soon it shrivel
up, works loose, and you lift it off
with finger tips.

Ask for *Frozol-ice* at Chemists

he was striving to kick off the hampering folds of his sleeping-bag, nothing more, but the thumping of his knees and elbows bore a dreadful significance to the terrified listener. Evidently the Thing had closed in—had grappled with Frank. Its hands, damp with death sweat, even now were groping for him, Joe! The thought was unbearable.

Blindly the elder brother thrust his revolver at full length in front of him and pulled the trigger; Frank shrieked, but again and again Joe fired, and when the last cartridge was spent he continued to snap the weapon. He desisted only when he heard a voice, faint but hoarse with agony, crying:

"O God! You've shot me, Joe! You've shot me!"

Then, and not until then, did a sort of sanity come to the wretch. The revolver slipped from his fingers, he felt his bones

dissolving into water; a horror ten times greater than he had previously suffered fell upon him. He tried to speak, to throw off this hideous nightmare, but his voice came only as a dry, reedy whisper.

Frank was still now, he did not respond to his brother's incoherencies except with a deep groaning that momentarily became more alarming.

"I—I—didn't—, I didn't shoot you Frank! Answer me! Say something!" Even yet the dread of that hobgoblin presence lay like ice upon the elder brother; he feared to move lest he encounter it, lest he touch it and it enfold him; but when Frank's twitching body became still he fell to his knees and went groping forward on all-fours in search of it. Death was here now. He had slain his brother and *there was no light!*

(To be continued in our next number—
December 14, 1918.)

FINANCIAL NOTES.

In referring to banking amalgamations in Britain, Mr. Bonar Law stated, in the House of Commons, that the Government did not intend to permit the creation of a "money trust."

The annual report of the National Bank of South Africa for the year ended 31st March last, is a record of increased business and continued prosperity. The gross profits amounted to £1,040,600, as against £990,000, in the preceding twelve months. The net profit totalled £352,600.

For the first time in history the resources of the New York Savings Banks failed this year to reflect an increase over the preceding year, this probably being ascribable to charging off for depreciation in securities held. Resources on July 1st last aggregated 2,169,877,364 dollars, a decrease of 3,039,050 from the corresponding date in 1917.

The latest return of the British Savings Banks shows deposits of the Trustee Savings Banks on August 3rd, at £56,282,000, and of the Post Office Savings Banks at £220,655,000. The total of £276,937,000 compares with £243,527,000 a year ago. Early in August, 1914, the total deposits were £244,496,000, of which £52,979,000 was

for the Trustee Savings Banks, and £191,517,000 for the Post Office Savings Bank.

The Vice-President of the National Bank of Commerce in New York, Mr. John F. Rovensky, recently expressed the opinion that by the time the war was over America would be one of the leading creditor nations, a centre from which a large part of the world's economic forces will be directed, and where the debits and credits of the world's trade will be settled. The economic supremacy, which from the dawn of civilisation had been travelling westward, and which now rested over London, would cross the Atlantic in its onward course, and furnish boundless opportunities for that country's banking interests. He anticipated that United States would emerge from the war a creditor nation to the extent of about 9,000,000,000 dollars.

A recent number of the London *Times* stated that the Government has brought itself to the usual step preparatory to action by instituting an official inquiry into the gold production question, which has just been put into the state of "ripeness" dear to all Governments in the shape of the presentation of a definite "case" by the Committee recently appointed for that purpose at the meeting

of combined gold-producers of the Empire." It is affirmed that the Government control of the price and marketing of its product has resulted in the net receipts per ounce being even less than the pre-war figure. A conference of United States gold-producers was also to be held in Nevada in August with a view to pressing for action by Congress on similar lines to those advocated in Britain. The British Empire is responsible for nearly two-thirds and the United States for something like a fifth of the world's annual output.

Many British financial journals continue to criticise caustically the utterances

of the Australian Prime Minister on economic questions. In a recent article entitled, "Mr. Hughes Again—Let Us Strangle Ourselves to be Revenged on the Germans," *The Investors' Review* refers to Mr. Hughes as the tool of the Protectionists in Britain, and asserts, "He is capable of making mischief far in excess of his gifts." The writer states that "at the bottom of all this screaming and fomentation of repulsion is not hatred of Germany, but vanity and self-aggrandisement, pelf-gathering notoriety," and several of Mr. Hughes' sentences are described as being picked out from "a quite thrilling farrago of undiluted bosh."

ESPERANTO NOTES.

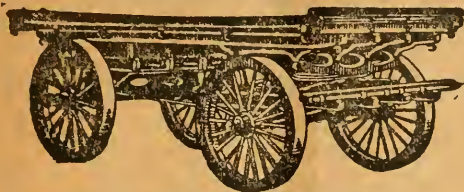
There were many who foretold that the war would be the end of Esperanto, and that international movements of all kinds were doomed either to extinction or to helplessness for many years to come. Happily these forecasts have been wide of the mark, at any rate as far as Esperanto is concerned. For the first eighteen months of the war the movement made scarcely any progress, but, as people settled down to war conditions interest was revived, and, more than this, the reports that Esperanto was being found useful in hospital and trench and internment camp showed that it was still worth while. Esperanto translations of various official war books were published by belligerent Governments and committees of Esperantists and distributed abroad; educational authorities in England, and Brazil, and China, and Russia, began to give it attention again; a great impetus was given to the movement in Russia when the old regime lost its power; and the language was largely used in the neutral countries, which had become unusually busy centres of international activity. The literary side of the language has not been forgotten; translated and original works in Esperanto have appeared in all the principal European countries. And, during the whole time, the Universal Esperanto Association has continued its work of facilitating the international intercourse of Esperantists by enabling them to make the greatest practical use of the language, as well as a great deal of war work such as tracing lost and in-

terned persons, arranging communications between prisoners of war and their relatives, etc. The journal of this Association, *Esperanto*, which has been published regularly at Geneva, has preserved a strict neutrality, and has circulated in all the belligerent and neutral countries.

With the coming of peace one can look for a more widespread interest in Esperanto, and a more general acceptance than ever before. The war has brought home to many people the need of such a means of communication, and has awakened in many more people a desire for communication with others outside their own country which they never felt before. Just as the restoration of shipping will make possible again the free exchange of goods, so will the lifting of the censorship make possible once again the free exchange of ideas. As the world at large may learn from this war that war does not pay, and will try to set up some better form of international organisation, so may many people find that the old polyglot methods of intercourse were unsatisfactory and inadequate and give a trial to a simple auxiliary language which will open to them the whole world.

Readers of STEAD'S interested in Esperanto should communicate with the nearest Esperanto group, in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, Hobart and Wellington. See last number of STEAD'S for addresses.

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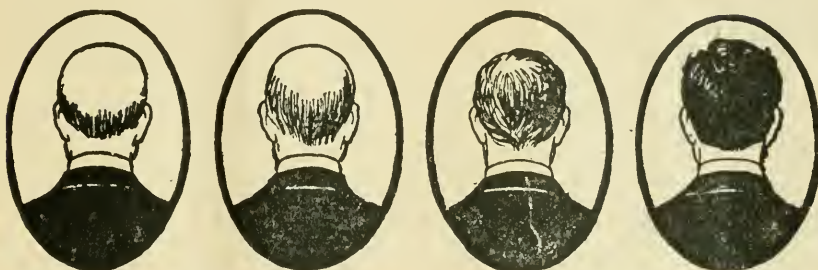
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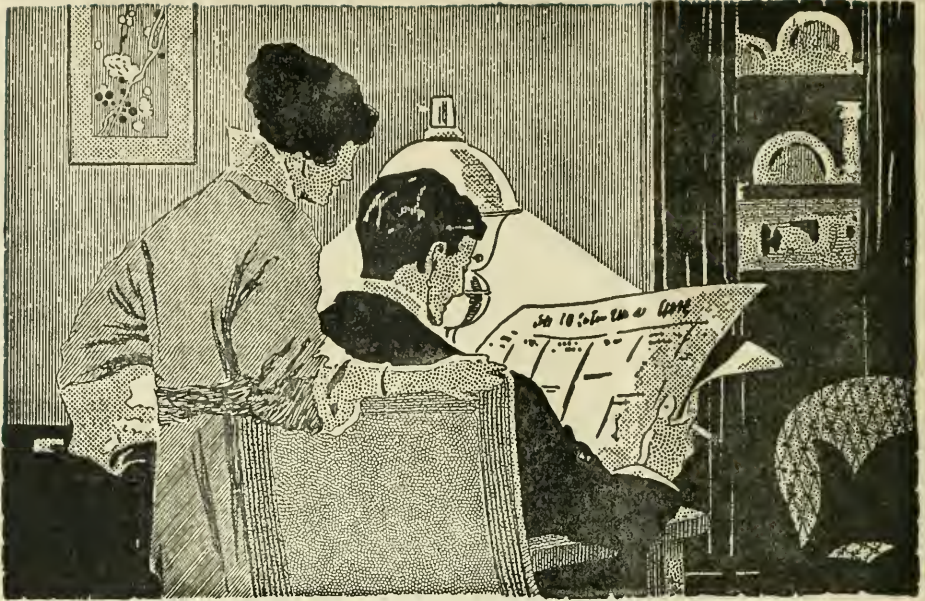
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